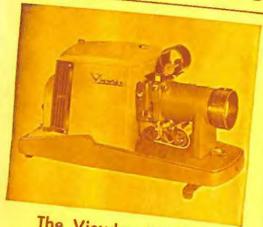
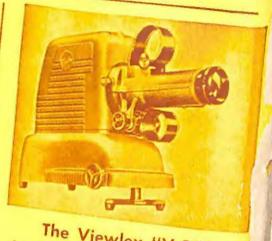


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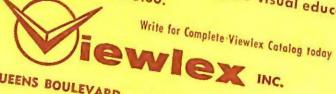
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Number 1

What Is "Pure" Education?

Superstitions in Education

GEORGE BOAS

In The Johns Hopkins Magazine

DUCATION is a process which started by being of some use. You were educated in order to learn things and for no other purpose. Education was invented because human beings simply do not know all they need to know when freshly hatched. We have to learn how to eat, how to walk, how to speak, how to dress, how to behave toward our parents and siblings and associates, how to modify every instinct which we have so as to be tolerated by that mythical creature known as Society.

Teaching is the process by which professional sadists show us how to do these things. By force of rewards and punishments, they drum into us a set of rituals which sooner or later become compulsive and which we then call by some elegant name like *The Great Tradition*.

Now it is obvious that teaching has only instrumental value as far George Boas is Professor Emeritus of the History of Philosophy at Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland. Reported from an address made by Professor Boas and published in Johns Hopkins

Magazine, (April 1959), 1-8.

as the pupil is concerned. The teacher can be made to believe that as compensation for a salary which no one in his right mind would accept, he is consecrating himself to a great cause. But as a matter of fact, it is not a great cause at all to beat into the head of an innocent child the correct way to conjugate irregular verbs—or even regular ones—in a language course, or how to do long division, or when Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin. It is boring, if necessary, work.

And it is just as boring to the child as it is to the teacher. The only excuse for elementary educa-

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tion is that it teaches the children things which they have to know if they are going on to secondary school. And the only excuse for most of the teaching in the secondary schools is that the young people must know these things if they are going on to college.

Whether a course is in the lower schools or in colleges and the graduate schools, its primary value is instrumental. I can see no sense in telling a person that the reason why he is studying two foreign languages is to improve his mind. You might as well tell a carpenter that the reason why he has to learn to saw a straight line is to improve his mind. You learn a language in order to speak or read it, and it is sheer mystification to try to endow the procedure with some higher value.

JUST PLAIN EDUCATION

But this will not do at all for the superstitious educationalists. No, first they set up something or other which they call just plain education. It is not education *in* something; it is not the education of men and women to do something; it is education off by itself in a world of ideals.

To hear the gurus talk of this process is like hearing a mother say to her daughter, "My dear, every girl should learn to cook, not to cook anything in particular, but just cooking. You shall not, my daughter, engage in the manual operations of cooking breakfast, lunch, and dinner, or eggs, roast

beef, bread, or fish; you shall have a liberal education in the general principles of culination." And if the girl is not hypnotized by the high-falutin language, she may turn on her mother and ask why. The answer, you may be sure, will be: "No girl can consider herself to be a true woman who does not know the general principles of cooking."

If this sounds exaggerated, listen to the professors of English who say that no man can be considered educated who does not know the great classics of his mother tongue, though actually the mother tongue may be Italian, Polish, Yiddish, or Chinese. Or vou might spend an hour or two listening to the chairman of the committee on curriculum, if you have one. "No man," he will say, "can be considered educated who does not know the general principles of science." "What science?" you reply. Just science, as if there were such a thing.

WAS PLATO EDUCATED?

I once heard one of my colleagues at Johns Hopkins announce at the faculty club that no man could be considered educated who did not know Shakespeare. "How about Plato and Aristotle?" I ventured to murmur. "They didn't know Shakespeare." But I regret to say that he thought I was a sophist.

Here, then, is one of the superstitions about education—that there is such a thing off by itself. This superstition has its roots in language which permits us to take any noun whatsoever and establish it as an abstraction. Education is far from being a unique case. The noun "art" is another. This habit of yanking such contextual terms out of their context and writing books about what they mean may give some satisfaction to the people who do it, but surely conveys no information to anyone else. Yet the higher you soar in your abstractions, the nobler you sound; and all of us want to sound as noble as possible, especially when we don't know what we are talking about.

LET'S BUILD CHARACTER

The establishment of pure education of nobody and in nothing as an ideal leads over immediately to another superstition. This is the superstition that education is character-building. The kind of character which education builds is left pretty vague, but anyway it is supposed to be good. Now, if character is what you are looking for, I can show you just as much outside of colleges as inside. And, sad to say, the intellectual at times has een known to put his own intelctual purposes above everything se. He may not fiddle while Rome burns, but he is very likely to be writing the music.

Certainly teachers have exactly the same kinds of character as other people. We teachers can be just as petty, as jealous, as ambitious, as intriguing, as fond of bickering and sniping, and also as magnanimous, as helpful, as selfeffacing, as cooperative, and as charitable as men who are not teachers—as men who are, in fact, not "educated."

A third superstition is that education is training for citizenship. That one may educate men or women in their duties to the state is highly probable. The state is better off, one imagines, if a large fraction of its citizens is well educated in something. But whether they will apply what they have learned is another story. And to maintain that education in general is training in citizenship is far from true. Many a man is very well educated and is a bad citizen.

Many a good citizen has very little education. He has not been trained to be a good citizen; he just is a good citizen. He knows what he knows and he knows it thoroughly. He has critical insight; he sees problems; he asks questions; he fearlessly tries to answer them—and sometimes succeeds. He is not consciously working for society but he does it a lot of good and the good he does is done through his mere presence.

Next in line is the superstition that says that education is for the production of leaders. Why should an educated man be any more of a leader than one who is not educated? I am not crazy about leaders, but if you have to have them, I should look for them in labor unions, in the Army and Navy, in Congress, in garden clubs, and wherever people work together in gangs. It is absurd to think that leaders should be found among

scholars. Scholarship is a fairly lonely occupation.

Scholars work on their own for the most part, dependent on the dead whose books they read and on colleagues often far away. The "leaders" in college are the operators who manage the various teams and edit the school paper; these are not the scholars except by chance.

All one has to do is to think of the scientific geniuses, men like Copernicus, Galileo, Newton, Mendel, and Darwin. They became leaders, if you will, after they died. While they were alive, they were in their studies, in the laboratories, in the library, plugging away on their work. Their leadership was purely incidental.

ARE YOU ADJUSTED?

A fourth superstition is that education is to adjust students to society. This is one of the worst. What society is he to be adjusted to? Society is made up of so many groups—churches, clubs, business firms, schools, political parties, learned and nonlearned societies. No one lives in all of society; no one could.

Moreover, if a man is identified with three or four groups it does not mean that he shares all the ideas which every other member of the group believes in. The fact that one is a member, let us say, of a museum of art does not mean that one shares all the esthetic ideas of the other members, let alone their political, economic, and

religious ideas. A man may be very avant-garde esthetically and very rear-guard economically. What you have to adjust to is the diversity inherent in our system. And this is very great. My point is that with a society of societies so complicated, how could anyone in any reasonable sense of the term become adjusted to society as a whole?

I could go on with this list of superstitions: the superstition that education is to instill in the student the Best that has been Thought and Said, for instance, when i would be much more useful to know the worst; the superstitio that education is for the sake of the friends you make, when every one knows that in 10 years after commencement you won't be able to recall the names of most of you classmates; the superstition the education is to prepare you for Life as if Life were something be yond the campus. But I think you have got my point by now.

There is no place in education for superstitions. Education is for learning things, and teaching is the teaching of what you learn. All the rest comes by the way, if it come at all. Most studies do us no good in any down-to-earth sense of good But as Cicero, said in a somewhat different context, "they are a stimulus in youth, a diversion for age, adorn success, provide a refuge in adversity, are a delight to home and a companion in our tray less." And what in the world wrong with that?

SEPTEMB'

Kto Kovo-Who Will Win over Whom?

The Real Challenge of Soviet Education

GEORGE S. COUNTS

In The Educational Forum

HE time has come to talk sense about meeting the challenge of Soviet education. The challenge of Soviet education is real. About that there should be no doubt in the mind of any informed person.

As things stand today, every act of the Kremlin reverberates throughout the world and is reported on the front page of The New York Times. And behind the power of the Kremlin may be seen the achievements of Soviet education. Indeed, we may say that here of Soviet is the understanding strength. The Soviet Union is the

first great state in history to employ the full force of organized education to achieve a distant apocalyptic goal. Through all organized agencies and processes for molding and informing the minds of both vorme and old it has sought with striking success to develop for the our purposes its most valuable natural resource-the abilities and talents of its people.

The following declaration of the Fiftieth Conference of the Communist Party in 1926 articulated an objective which has guided the course of Soviet policy down to this day: "We must strive in the shortest possible historical period to overtake and surpass the most advanced capitalistic countries and thus insure the victory of socialism in its historic competition with the

system of capitalism."

The launching of the first Five-Year Plan two years later constituted the first great organized effort to move toward this objective. The central theme of the plan was presented in large posters which were widely distributed. It is appropriate to describe one of these posters here. It showed two powerful locomotives, one black and the other red, racing on parallel tracks.

George S. Counts is Professor Emeritus of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. Reported from The Educa-(March Forum, XXIII 1959), 261-69.

Over the locomotives were two Russian words Kto Kovo. Literally translated these words become "who whom," but they mean "who will win over whom?" or "who will destroy whom?" And the black locomotive represented the United States of America.

Today, according to Khrushchev and some American spokesmen, the Kremlin may be in sight of its goal. In spite of the terrible devastation of the Second World War, the Central Committee has held the Soviet state steadily on its course. Under a system of "compulsory savings" or heavy sales taxes on the necessities of life, which for a quarter of a century have kept the material standard of living for the masses near the margin of subsistence, the Soviet dictatorship has moved inexorably toward the objective which the government had announced in

NOT WHAT IT SEEMS

It is the total Soviet educational program which has played the critical role in the transformation of the former Russian Empire and in the advancement of the Soviet Union to the position of the second industrial power in the world. And it does constitute a challenge to American education. But the challenge is not quite what it appears to be to many minds. The teaching of physics from the sixth grade contributed very little, if anything, to the recent spectacular advances in nuclear physics. It was but a passing expression of a way of

regarding the development of the natural sciences.

The question is often asked: "Is the Soviet system of education better than ours?" Put in this form the question makes very little sense. Since education is always a most intimate expression of the life and institutions of a given society, unless it is imposed from without by armed force, comparison of different systems is extremely difficult and hazardous. The ancient philosophers knew this very well. But let us turn to one of the most thoughtful students of the modern age, to a man whose writings influenced the founders of our republic-Montesquieu. Over two centuries ago in his Spirit of the Laws, he observed that "the laws of education ought to be in relation to the principles of government." One should add: to the whole system of society with its social heritage, its institutions, its body of values, and its power structure. This means that a program of education entirely suited to one society might destroy another.

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

The educational implications of the Soviet political system are plain. At the polls in the Soviet Union the ordinary citizen is not expected to pass judgment on issues of policy or of personality. At the election of delegates to the Supreme Soviet last March-the institution corresponding to our Congress-99.97 percent of the eligible voters went to the polls. But of these

less than one-half of one percent entered the voting booths. All the rest merely picked up a ballot over here and put it into a box over there—an act that one of Pavlov's dogs could have learned to perform in a few hours.

TWO LOVES IDENTICAL

The preparation for citizenship of the citizen of the Soviet Union must take the form of inculcating in him unquestioning loyalty to the regime. The central ingredient in education in Communist morality, subject which receives more attention in Soviet pedagogies than instruction in natural sciences, is the development in the young of "love of the Motherland and the Communist Party." Children are told over and over again that the two loves are identical. After the down-grading of Stalin at the Twentieth Congress of the Party in February 1956, apparently some Soviet citizens got the idea that the system would be fundamentally changed in the direction of political liberty. Such heresies were quickly nipped in the bud by a powerful and unequivocal editorial in the July 6, 1956, issue of Pravda, the organ of the Central Commitentitled, "The Communist Party-the Inspirer and Leader of the Soviet People." The key sentence in the long editorial reads as follows: "As for our country, the Communist Party has been, is, and will be the sole master of the minds, the voice of the thoughts and hopes, the leader and the organizer of the people in their entire struggle for Communism."

Our American political system in fundamental respects is almost the antithesis of the Soviet. The basic presupposition of our form of government and society as developed in the period of the launching of the republic may be formulated in these words: "The ordinary citizen not only can but will acquire the necessary knowledge and understanding to enable him to pass informed judgment on the greatest issues of policy and personality." This, of course, is a tremendous Indeed it is the boldest assumption regarding the nature of man and of his potentialities ever put to the test in the history of the human race. It was sufficiently bold in the relatively simple society of the founding fathers. when the advance of science and technology has created a society unprecedentedly complex in its patterns, wide in its sweep, and dynamic in its operations, it almost takes on the appearance of a utopian dream.

Many careful studies seem to reveal that the ordinary citizen is overwhelmingly concerned with his immediate personal and family problems, and is quite content to leave to others the great questions involving the long-time fortunes of the republic and the survival of freedom in the world. Only in a hotly contested election does a majority of our eligible voters vote.

Let us return now to the question of the relative merits of the two

systems of education. If phrased as follows the question does make sense: "Does the Soviet system of education serve the purposes of the Soviet political and social system better than our system of education serves the purposes of our political and social system?" It is the opinion of the writer that in this sense the Soviet system may well be superior to ours.

OUR TASK DIFFICULT

But the point must be made at once that the task assigned to our schools is vastly more difficult than the task assigned to the Soviet schools. We must prepare the members of the younger generation discharge intelligently and responsibly all the duties of citizens of a free society in the industrial age. They have only to prepare their children and youth to love the Party and serve the state in accordance with their different gifts and talents. To be sure, the Soviets may fail in this vast realm of moral education. But on such a possibility we should not base our policy.

The real challenge of Soviet education, therefore, is not to be found in the realm of science and technology. If that were all we had to fear, the situation would not be too alarming. We must, of course, "strive in the shortest possible historical period to overtake and surpass" the Soviet Union in whatever fields of science and technology they may be leading at the present time. About this there must be no

equivocation. But after we have succeeded here the great task of our education will remain: the rearing of a generation of citizens who will be able to rise to the moral and intellectual challenges of these fateful times.

BAISE OUR SIGHTS

This means above all the raising of our sights relative to the entire educational undertaking. And this means that we must regard education far more seriously than ever before in our history. We must regard it, not only as a means of individual success and personal cultivation, but also as an indispensable means in the building of national health and strength on the foundations of freedom. This means further, and most particularly, the raising of the qualifications and the material and spiritual rewards of the teacher at all levels. traditionally inferior status of the teacher in America is to be improved, teaching must come to be regarded as one of the noblest and most arduous of callings.

The attainment of this goal might well double the cost of education and involve as large a proportion of the total national income as the Russians devote to their schools. It might even involve devoting two or three times as much money to schools as to advertising! very survival as a free society in the great ordeal through which we are destined to pass may well KTO depend on these things. KOVO?

What Do the Home Folks Say?

The Soviets Are Criticizing Their Schools

RICHARD RENFIELD

In NEA Journal

PERPLEXITY and disarray now reign in the imperialist circles of the strongest capitalist lands, which have long boasted of their science and culture and have always looked One hears them down on Russia. cry, 'Overtake the USSR in science 'Overtake the and technology! USSR in education!"

The Soviet editorial containing these words refers, as do many other articles in Russian education journals, to the American awe of Soviet education since Sputnik I.

But a far more frequent subject in these journals is criticism of Soviet education by those who know it best-criticism by Russian teachers and administrators of the very facets which some Americans have tended to laud.

The 10-year school, until recently the cornerstone of Soviet education, is now being abolished. The charge is precisely that an exaggerated dedication to the academic has "divorced it from life." In Soviet parlance, a school system divorced from life is one which fails to prepare people for a productive function in the economy-that is, primarily for physical labor in industry, agriculture, transportation, and construction. The problem, from the economic standpoint, is that the overwhelming majority of 10-year school graduates cannot

Richard Renfield is a staff member of the National Education Association. While doing graduate work in education at the University of Maryland, he began the researches on Societ education which are the basis of this article. Reported from NEA Journal, XLVIII (March 1959), 22-25, 78.

gain admission to higher education, and yet are prepared for nothing

Contributors to the Soviet journals Public Education and Societ Pedagogy in the last two years have conducted a lively discussion on ways to close the "gap between school and life." They speak of the necessity for increasing the practical significance of the "pure" academic subjects. They urge, for instance, that the sciences be taught, not primarily as collegepreparatory subjects, but rather to help pupils' understanding of machinery, agriculture, and construction.

In addition, contributors have been declaring that school time should increasingly be devoted to manual labor. All of this has been having its effect and in many secondary schools vocational programs have been and are being tested.

But such experiments have

proved inadequate, according to Comrade Afanasenko, the Russian Federation's Minister of Education. The basic trouble is that they attempt "to solve the problem of closing the gap between study and life within the framework of an obsolete educational system, within the framework of the 10-year school with all its great defects, with the old curriculum and textbooks."

In short - despite American praise-the 10-year school is passing from the scene. In a report made last September, approved by the Presidium of the Central Committee of the Soviet Communist Party, Khrushchev ruled that a seven-year or eight-year school would be sufficient to fulfill both the vocational and generaleducation tasks of compulsory universal education. And now the official solution has been handed down. In December, the Supreme Soviet unanimously enacted an education law based on Khrushchev's report. The institution for universal education will henceforth be an eight-year "general educational, polytechnical, labor school." And the nascent Soviet school system will contain many "frills" in addition to its vocational orientation. It will, for example, teach girls to sew, cook, and keep house.

Subsequent schooling will not be compulsory. It, too, will be partly vocational, for, as Khrushchev warned, "more young people will study in these schools than will be needed to replenish university rolls." However, Khrushchev, edu-

cators, and legislators emphasize the necessity for universal opportunity for part-time continuation of secondary education.

Many Soviet educators speaking and writing critically about Soviet schools maintain that universal education must foster, in addition to vocational and general academic competence, development of certain character traits. Among these are respect for the group and for public property, "Soviet patriotism and proletarian internationalism," atheism, healthful living habits, observance of correct manners when dancing or eating, courage, industriousness, will power, the ability to "distinguish the beautiful and harmonious from the vulgar and ugly." and independence of thought and initiative, which the Soviet schools have hitherte often failed to arouse. As one writer observes, teaching should "be directed not alone by consideration of order and discipline, but by the chief educational objective-the formation of each pupil's personality and character."

Among methods advocated for promoting the desired traits are student participation in school government, productive labor, holiday planning, correspondence during class time with pupils in East Germany, and extracurricular activities. And educators indicate in their writings the belief that discipline is better enforced through united decisions of the offender's classmates than through action of principal or teacher.

There is one quality which edu-

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eators. legislators, scholars, and workers most consistently urge the school to foster. This is the respect for labor. It appears that far too many students have had only one desire: to be accepted by a university—any university—on their graduation from the 10-year school, thus avoiding manual labor. Parents and teachers alike have threatened a future of manual labor in order to motivate pupils who do poorly in their studies.

VIEWS ON LEARNING

It has been said by an American critic that Soviet students learn more in 10 years than American students in 12. It is difficult at best to compare the total knowledge, skills, and attitudes acquired in school by the populations of two different nations. But a comparison would certainly require consideration of the Soviet view on schools. Soviet in learning education in Soviet Comments publications are frequently uncomexample, plimentary. As, for Foreign Languages in the School often complains that pupils cannot express themselves in a foreign language after six years of required study. This is "particularly intolerable today, when the international ties of our socialist nation are growing." Or consider as just one more example, this quote (one of several of the kind) from Public Education: "Nineteenth-century physics ... is still taught in our secondary schools."

The charge of formalism in

teaching is one of the most frequent criticisms leveled by Soviet educators at the Soviet school. They refer to the kind of teaching which is limited to lecturing and questioning and which they say fails to provide activities that would illustrate and explain theoretical learnings and would elicit independent work and thought.

It is not surprising that a society which admits to relatively few differences in mental capacity would place much of the blame for poor learning on poor teaching. The accounts in Soviet journals indicate that there is much justice in the placing of the blame. Many amusing illustrations are cited, along with the teacher's name, grade, and school. Unimaginative, pedestrian teachers are derisively termed "lesson givers," and the Soviet Union appears to have its share.

The blame for such faults is most often attributed to defects in teacher preparation. Soviet practice teaching, for example, is described as a farce in that it provides little opportunity for actual teaching and what there is of actual teaching is unrealistic. One article includes a highly favorable description of the student-teaching practices in America.

Descriptions of good teaching methods and requests for more such descriptions abound in Soviet journals. The utility of visual aids and field trips in teaching and the need for teaching methods that arouse student interests are often pointed out. To increase pupil achieve-

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ment, say many Soviet educators, teachers must be encouraged to know the background and interests of their pupils. They must read methods literature, attend methods workshops, and observe teaching at other schools.

Observers have frequently said that Soviet pupils "work" harder than American pupils. Praise for that fact, however, seems to come from those who know the least about it. Soviet educators themselves appear to agree fully with American educators that good teaching involves more than presentation of subject matter, and that hard work is of little use if it results in memorization rather than learning.

In Soviet educational literature there is little patience with the crowded conditions found in many schools. Soviet educators advocate large-scale school-construction programs to eliminate the double-shift and triple-shift school day. Many educators insist that the teacher must know the individual pupils if teaching is to be effective. That is why classes of 35 to 40 pupils, common in the USSR, are described as too large.

Though Americans have not always been led to think so, Soviet educators appear to believe that schools should be esthetically pleasing and should contain many facilities other than regular classrooms. An editorial in Public Education states; "Pupils do not live by lessons alone. The school should be their second home, not an icebox where children are cold and bored and where adults are glad when the children leave." An especially fascinating article in the January issue of Public Education deals with a meeting of educators, doctors, engineers, architects, and builders to discuss the blueprint for a model school building for 600 pupils. The plan calls for many of those features which critics in America have found objectionable in our so-called "schoolhouse palaces."

Now this radical reorientation of Soviet education toward vocational preparation is probably dictated largely by current needs of the Soviet economy. But as we have seen, purely pedagogical considerations have much to do with the present wave of dissatisfaction with Soviet schools. A study of criticism currently appearing in Soviet educational journals indeed revealing. Perhaps those Americans who believe that our educational ills could best be solved by looking eastward might well take a close look at the East.

HEN the pioneers settled this country, the Indians were running it. There were no taxes, no national debt, and the women did all the work. And the pioneers thought they could improve a system like that.—From National Future Farmer.

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It Pays to Pay-As-You-Go

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ELWYN J. BODLEY

In The Nation's Schools

ARASSED by twin specters of maturing bonded indebtedness on existing school buildings and the need for additional financing for new structures, many administrators are seeking a way out of the frustrating and expensive borrowed money cycle. Especially are they looking for ways to eliminate bond interest payments that eat away the educational dollar.

One system of financing that, under certain conditions. available a regular source of buildings funds at reduced cost is the school building levy plan. Under this system voters authorize an annual assessment against taxable property for the specific purpose of erecting school buildings. The authorization is for a stipulated number of years and for a specified

number of mills. It becomes an additional income apart from school operating funds. Since the plan obviates the need for selling bonds, substantial economies are realized through interest savings.

Under the levy plan no construction is begun until the money is on hand, or definitely in sight, so that buildings emerge debt free. Thus. the problems that come with longterm financing are forestalled. But for this reason the levy system will not work if the new school is needed right away. Nor will it solve a district's building problems if the amount of capital required exceeds the maximum assessment that can be made against the property value of the district. It is quite likely however, that many systems car lighten the burden of future school house construction by adopting 10 to 15 year levy program now.

Districts that put the lev scheme into effect a decade more ago are reaping rich reward today and are pleased with the present good fortune. Since t school mill tax is a remarkable w

Elicyn J. Bodley is Superintendent of Schools at Bay City, Michigan. Reported from The Nation's LXIII (March Schools. 59-61.

of saving interest money, other communities with sufficient taxable property to make the plan feasible also may want to consider this source of revenue.

Bay City, Michigan, is one school system that has found the school levy plan the answer to its new school problems. Planning began in the forties. At the time the schools were faced with the prospect of a 35 percent increase in enrolment within five years and school properties of the city fell far short of coping with such an emergency.

At the 1944 election, an advisory ballot indicated that the citizens of Bay City approved a reorganization of the school system into three dimensions: primary, intermediate, and high school. At the same election, an annual 2 mill school levy was voted for a period of five years, to 1949. From this source the district annually realized about \$120,000 for building funds. This was during the war and postwar years when restrictions on building materials discouraged the erection of new buildings. For this reason money was spent largely for urgently needed repairs and for the enlargement and modernization of the two high schools. The balance of the money accumulated.

But the moratorium on new school construction did not halt planning for the future. Charles B. Park, then superintendent, had initiated an all-embracing school-community relations program, involving various lay committees. Local industry was induced to finance a

one and one-half year survey of local school needs. By the time the five-year period under the 2 mill levy approached expiration, citizens had become fully aware of the need to support the school building program in an even larger way.

Thus, in June 1949, Bay City citizens voted a new levy—a 4 mill annual assessment program for 15 years. This tax, double the previous amount, extended over a period three times as long. From the \$4 to be levied annually on each thousand of assessable property valuation there would be realized annually school construction funds of approximately \$250,000 (figured on the basis of property valuation at the time).

A 15-YEAR PLAN

The school district proposed to the citizens a 15 year program consisting of from 15 to 19 community elementary schools; new intermediate units; an addition to Handy High School, including shops and music room, and stands and lighting for the athletic field; and enlargement of the cafeteria and workshops and a large permanent gymnasium at Central High School.

Once approved, the Bay City school construction program moved swiftly. With funds accumulated from the previous 2 mill tax the improvements were made at Handy High School at a cost of \$294,023, while an additional \$483,000 carryover from the earlier tax was available to get the new building program under way.

SEPTEMBER

First collections on the new 4 mill tax were received in August 1949, and cornerstones for the first two new schools—both intermediate units—were laid in November of that year and were dedicated 16 months later. Before the end of 1952, or within three years of the start of the new program, Bay City had six new debt-free schools, valued at \$1,608,081.

In 1953 expenditures were limited to minor improvements, but during 1954 the seventh new school was opened. Also in 1954 and in 1955 improvements and additions were made at five schools, including additions to three structures built after 1949. In 1956 the eighth school was occupied; also improvements were made at six schools, including additions at two of the new units. In 1957 the ninth school was occupied, and a gymnasium was added with the aid of state funds.

The Bay City Board of Education has kept the citizens of Bay City informed concerning collections, expenditures, and the accomplishments of their tax levy program. Probably no facts are more impressive than these: During the years 1949 to 1957 Bay City has built "out of pocket" nine debt-

free structures. The cost of the over-all program was \$3,777,685. To finance this amount of construction under the usual procedures would have required selling approximately \$3.5 million of bonds. Borrowing at 3 percent, the interest on the used portion of the funds would have amounted to \$525,000. Because interest payments were entirely eliminated by the mill tax plan, the district's savings totalled \$525,000, the equivalent of the cost of two of the nine schools.

Perhaps the most significant aspect of Bay City's method of financing is that the program will keep pace with the growth of the community and will permit the replacement of the remaining inadequate and obsolete school quarters. Under the tax levy plan a sufficient number of schools is assured to provide through 1964 for the growing number of children of the city and in newly developed suburbs.

Because back in the early forties and again in 1949, Bay City's residents voted favorably on a pay-asyou-go construction program, we can today continue with our long-range schoolhouse planning without fear of experiencing undue financial headaches.

Prepay Plan (Children's Style)

ONE parent we know thinks it only fair to apply a with-holding tax to the youngster's allowance just so the younger generation can get gradually accustomed to a procedure to which adults are now hardened.—From The Christian Science Monitor.

Is the Present Chaos the Price of Democracy?

Let Educators Run Our Schools

Myron Lieberman

In The Nation

OCAL control over curriculums will be a major casualty of the growing national stake in the quality of public education. Within the foreseeable future, communities will no longer decide what subjects are to be taught in the public schools—nor will local PTAs, citizens' committees, veterans' organizations, and other pressure groups which currently influence school boards. Eventually, authority over the curriculum will be lodged with national professional agencies.

I am convinced that we are about to move rapidly toward a national system of education. The idea that the present chaos in education is the price one has to pay for living in a democracy, or even the more nonsensical notion that this chaos is actually a pillar of our democracy, will linger on, but without any real force in our society.

A great deal of our present educational structure is likely to remain intact. To understand this, one must bear in mind that a national system of education is not necessarily the same thing as a federal system. Under a federal system, the schools are operated by the federal government. But education might continue to be the legal responsibility of the state and local communities, yet become substan-

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tially similar all over the country as a result of nongovernmental pressures. Under these circumstances, it would make sense to speak of an educational system that was national, but not federal. This point can be illustrated by the situation in medicine. Legally, medical education and licensure are controlled by state medical boards. Actually, these state boards are dominated by the American Medical Association, and we have, in effect, a national system.

In the next few decades, it is unlikely that we shall have a federal school system which covers the entire country. Such a development would occur only if the failure of states and communities to carry their educational responsibilities were to be brought home dramatically to the American people by some such event as the abolition of public education in the Deep South.

It is difficult to predict the form which centralization will take. It

should be clear that the decline of local control of education means more than a simple transfer of authority from communities to the states or to the federal government. It can, and indeed it must, mean a tremendous increase in the power of the teachers as an organized group. This is the key to a number of problems which will arise during the transition to a centralized educational system.

FEAR OF CENTRALIZATION

People are opposed to a centralized system of schools for many reasons, not all of them noble. But it must be conceded that many thoughtful people have a gnawing fear of a centralized school system which is devoid of any selfish motivation. Their fear is for the integrity of the system, not for the fate of their particular views on political, economic, religious, racial, or other controversial issues. Ironically, their doubts are often based on experiences with local control; and every inanity committed by a local board reinforces, rather than weakens, their distrust of a federal system. For they argue that, under the present system, the worst blunders are confined to a limited area. What would happen, they ask, if a national school board or federal school administrator were to engage in the educational follies local characterize some which boards?

The answer is that it would be a calamity—but that the more we centralize our school system (up to

a point, of course), the less likely it is that such a calamity would occur. The crucial point is that, at the national level, no one group has the kind of power to interfere with the educational program that one sees every day under a system of local control. The rabble rousers who can successfully frighten a large city school system like Los Angeles to drop an essay contest on the United Nations would find it much more difficult to undermine the curriculum in a federal school system. Even the more legitimate pressure groups, such as the AFL-CIO and the NAM, would be unable to shape the educational program in a federal system to their own ends. Each would be watched and checked by all the others if it attempted any massive interference. since no nonprofessional group would have the power to dictate, and since classrooms would not be subject to local censorship, teachers would be free to discuss points of view which are now proscribed by local boards.

But what assurance is there that the balance of power will not change suddenly so as to provide one of the groups, or a combination of them, with the opportunity it seeks to subvert the school program to its own ends? If by "assurance" is meant an iron-clad guarantee, of course there is none. We are choosing between practical alternatives, not between mathematical solutions, one of which is the perfect answer. It is local control of education which provides

the greater opportunity, on a national basis, for national pressure groups to dominate the educational programs of the public schools. Local school boards are unable to withstand the pressures which can be generated by powerful national organizations. On the other hand, in a centralized system, teachers organizations would probably play a much more important role in protecting the integrity of public education than they do at the present time.

PROFESSIONAL CONTROL

Education is, or should be, a profession. It is in the public interest to accord the professional worker the autonomy to make the decisions which call on his expertness. In education it is this expertness which is needed. To have nonprofessional control over the curriculum in any school system is undesirable.

In asserting the need for professional controls in a centralized system, I do not mean to contend that all professional decisions, such as those relating to curriculums, should be made at the national level. Some should be made at state or local levels; others should be regarded as the prerogative of the individual teacher. This is also true of educational decisions of a nonprofessional nature; some should be made at the national level, others at state or local levels, and still others should be made by parents or students.

Regardless of whether a decision

is professional or nonprofessional. the extent of state, local, and or individual option to make it must be decided in the first instance at a more inclusive level. This is only common sense. For obvious reasons, the American people as a whole have made national defense a federal concern. On the other hand, we provide individuals with many options concerning the ways in which they can fulfill their military obligations; they can, for instance, within the limits of national policy, choose their branch of military service. In education, there is an urgent need for a clear-cut, comprehensive national policy outlining the educational decisions to be made at the various levels.

Our chief concern should be the way in which professional opinion is recognized and articulated in a centralized educational system. For example, the fact that some educational decisions may be made by federal officials is not important per se. What is important is who these officials are, how they are appointed, what specific decisions do they have the power to make, to what extent is their tenure dependent on satisfying professional opinion, and so on. Those who attempt to settle concrete questions power and authority in education by generalized appeals to the virtues of a particular level of control can be ignored with great profit.

At present there is confusion in every direction. The line between professional and nonprofessional decisions has all but disappeared,

with nonprofessional agencies making an enormous number of professional decisions. In addition, local school boards currently have the power to make all sorts of non-professional decisions which should be made at national levels.

It must be clearly understood that both professionalization and centralization can be overdone. There is no calculus by which we can classify decisions; each must be evaluated on its own merits to determine whether it is professional in nature and at what level it should be made. We will never make educational sense until we stop using phrases like "local control of education," or "federal control of education." or "academic freedom" as substitutes for clear thinking about the decision-making structure of education.

For example, there has always been some federal control over public education; like any activity of state or local government, it must be carried on within the limitations set by the Constitution. All the furor over racial integration in public education should not blind us to the fact that the Supreme Court has long been deciding such issues as whether or not children in public schools must salute the flag in school, or be released for religious instruction. And although some critics may have questioned the wisdom of the Court's decisions, no one has seriously questioned its Constitutional right, its duty, even, to make them.

Because, under our present sys-

tem, people are accustomed to having pressure groups of every kind shaping the school program, they presuppose that the same policy would prevail under a centralized system. Obviously, if the educational program in a centralized system were to be placed under congressional control, or under the control of a politically-dominated national school board, the ensuing political melee could be disastrous. The way out is to realize that the problem is not which public-local, state, or national-should shape the educational program, but how to make certain that the program is in the hands of teachers, where it belongs. Once the American people understand the occupational dimension of the distribution power in our educational system, they will have overcome the major psychological barrier to centraliza-

It is not just a question of whether a more centralized system would be better if it were characterized by professional autonomy. The crux of the matter is that centralization itself will hasten the establishment of professional autonomy. It will dramatize the admittedly abysmal dramatize the dramatize the admittedly abysmal weaknesses of current teacher organizations and put in motion the forces eliminating the weaknesses.

Centralization and professionalization are inevitable not in spite of what people think, but because enough people will eventually think long enough and hard enough about public education to realize that no other policy makes sense.

It May Be an SOS

I Don't Want to Go to School

PEG PORTER

In Parents' Magazine

NE morning a child wakes up and announces, "I don't want to go to school"—or even "I won't go to school." His mother, after feeling his brow, chalks it up to an early attack of spring fever or a fascinating new plaything he can't bear to leave. But suppose the same difficulty should be encountered several mornings in a row. Suppose one day he absolutely refuses to stir out of the house when school time comes. This cannot be dismissed so easily.

In the Bureau of Child Guidance, a psychiatric clinic operated by the Division of Child Welfare of New York City's Board of Education, we see many children who are having trouble about going to school. As a psychiatric social worker in the Bureau, I work with the parents of some of them, trying to get at the roots of what's going on before it becomes serious. That's the main thing—to understand why, because even in the case of the youngest kindergartner, there is a

why, and once you know it you're on the way to a solution.

You can't always find out why by asking a child, no matter how good your relationship. Often he doesn't know himself. He may just know that he feels hurt, confused, or upset, without being able to pinpoint how he got that way. He may just know that he wants to stay home so some painful thing that happened won't happen again. But a little observation, putting two-and-two together, may enable you to help him out of his trouble.

Could it be a situation at school? Maybe, for some reason, a child feels at a loss with a particular subject and suffers agonies of embarrassment every time it comes up in the day's program. Fifth-grade Mary, for instance, was a poor reader. Every time the teacher called on her, she blushed, stammered, and died a thousand inner deaths. When this finally led to her refusing to go to school, her mother and her teacher had a conference. They decided on a program of special outside help with reading. And the teacher refrained from calling on Mary until she was better able to keep up with her class.

A physical handicap, even a minor one, can cause a child to want to remain at home rather than

Peg Porter is Supervisor of School Social Workers, New York City Board of Education. Reported from Parents' Magazine, XXXIV (March 1959), 48, 77-79. mingle with other children who may laugh at him and tease him. If it's a permanent handicap, you have to help him learn to live with it. If it is something remediable, like overweight, the doctor's advice may be of inestimable help.

Maybe the child has trouble with other youngsters and hasn't mentioned it because he isn't a "tattletale." For weeks, nine-yearold Janice trembled with terror when Paul, the class bully, threatened to "get her" on the way home. It wasn't so bad when she was sure of walking with friends, but one day she was kept late to complete an assignment. When it came time to leave alone, she broke into such terrified sobs that her teacher phoned her mother to come for her. The whole story came out and the teacher and parents involved were able to handle the problem. To Janice, it hadn't mattered much that Paul was "only teasing."

Maybe a child feels that his teacher is "picking on" him or doesn't like him. Of course, there are times when there is a real personality clash between a particular child and a particular teacher which can be solved only when an understanding principal arranges a change of class. Much more often, however, a difficulty between a child and teacher is of a temporary nature, based on misunderstanding, and then-when it is brought out in the open-it can be resolved. As in Eddie's case. His burning hope was to be a class monitor. His main school problem was arithme-

tic and his teacher had made a bargain with him. If he could raise his arithmetic grade five points by Easter, he could return as a monitor. Working like a beaver Eddie actually made those five points. But his teacher, pressed by a hundred assorted problems, forgot her end of the bargain and the promised promotion. Eddie sulked for a while and then decided he didn't want to go to a school that didn't keep its promises. When his father suggested that he talk it over with his teacher instead of just brooding, his faith was restored.

DEEPER PROBLEMS

So far, I've been talking about children whose difficulties, while painful, aren't too deep-seated. Basically they're youngsters who are having trouble coping with difficult situations and are readily able to use help from parents and teachers. There are children, however, whose problems go deeper and may require professional help. Some show evidence of a condition which psychiatrists call "school phobia." Often, they become pale and tremble uncontrolably at the mere mention of school. At the school door, they are unable to enter, galvanized by a terror which may unfortunately strike adults as "just plain silly."

Psychiatrists have learned that the child suffering from a school phobia isn't actually afraid to go to school. What he really fears is that if he leaves home some dire calamity may occur. His mother may die

or the house may burn down. To him these fears are real. That's the important thing in dealing with this child—to recognize that these fears are, to him, very real indeed, even when he can't actually put them into words.

Children suffering from school phobia have problems which have become too much for them and which they are trying to solve in a way that does them harm. They need skilled help. If it is given in time, they often make quite rapid adjustments, to the extent of being able to return to school without undue fear even though they may continue to need help for some time to come. Most authorities feel that, with very few exceptions, it is better for such children to go back as soon as possible, even if they are able only to sit in the principal's office, run errands, or engage in a few selected activities.

With such a child, parents and teachers get nowhere by nagging or threatening. If he can get professional help, it may be a good idea to let the therapist manage the return to school. But if treatment is not available, talking the situation over with the child, sharing and accepting his feelings about it, giving him support on the difficult trip back is more than likely to help him to return without severe fear. It is a situation in which it is necessary for the school and the parents to work together.

Practically everybody, we have learned, can suffer from school phobia-girls, boys, weak children, strong children, children from excellent home backgrounds. The interesting thing is that most of them are well behaved, courteous, anxious to please. Prior to the onset of the symptoms of school phobia, they may never have defied authority.

Eleven-year-old Bob, for example, was almost too sober and polite for his years. An only child, he had spent a great deal of time with his parents and had few friends his own age. He became very upset when his father had to be out of the home for a while because of illness. When his mother began to confide in him her loneliness and financial problems, the burden became too heavy. Boh's good grades fell off alarmingly. He began to spend days at home on the pretext of feeling ill and finally he refused to leave at all. But after a few interviews with the clinic doctor, where Bob was able to air his worries about things at home and get a better perspective on them, he was able to return to school. His teacher helped by stimulating Bob's interest in electronics, involving other boys in the projects so that Bob made new friends.

Some youngsters aren't as lucky as Bob in getting treatment early. The important thing—and this cannot be overstressed—is that the protest "I don't want to go to school" be listened to. It might be an SOS. In this case the obstacles on the road to school can be removed and the troubled youngster's footsteps redirected towards his classroom.

Changes in Concept and Content

Program for College Preparatory Mathematics

In A Summary of the Report of the Commission on Mathematics

N presenting a program to improve the secondary-school preparation of college-capable young people in mathematics, the Commission on Mathematics of the College Entrance Examination Board stresses at the outset that, more than ever before in history, the study and appreciation of mathematics is vital to scientific, industrial, and social progress and, more fundamentally, to man's intellectual development.

The technological and scientific advances of relatively recent years—from automation to the explorations of space—have opened up new fields of opportunity to those trained in mathematics. They are in demand to a degree never dreamed of before.

Our science, our industry, our national defense, and our intellectual drive all demand that this nation develop a substantially larger body of mathematically literate people and a mathematical science adequate for the needs of the latter half of the twentieth century. To do this, the Commission believes that it is necessary to make some revision in the content and teaching of mathematics at the secondary-school level. These revisions are not drastic and they need not disrupt either secondary-school objectives or proReported from A Summary of the Report of the Commission on Mathematics prepared by the Commission on Mathematics of the College Entrance Examination Board, New York, (1959), 1-12.

grams, but they are necessary if our college-capable students are to be prepared to meet the mathematics demands of our times.

The mathematics curriculum in many secondary schools today is little or no different from that of a century or more ago. It virtually ignores the tremendous growth and new applications of mathematics in recent years and fails to recognize the new spirit of this science, not only as a tool for solving some of the most perplexing problems conceived by the human mind, but as a study that can use creatively and imaginatively the full power of the human intellect.

Yet the secondary school is the key to improved mathematics in our colleges and universities. Mathematics comes easier to the young. We know that high school is the place where most of our great scientists and mathematicians acquired the interest that started them on their careers. Mathematics, both old and new, has an unusual ability to stimulate the inquiring

mind. Presented in a contemporary spirit, it cannot help but excite and challenge many bright young students.

The secondary school must realize that the traditional one year of algebra and one year of geometry are shockingly inadequate college preparation for the full intellectual development of the talented, no matter what subsequent career they may follow. Three years of mathematics in secondary school is the minimum recommended, and parents, teachers, and the leaders of our colleges and universities should see to it that as many of our collegecapable youngsters as possible study mathematics for four years. No longer can such preparation be offered only to prospective scientists and engineers. In these days, anyone may need extensive mathematical study.

In making recommendations for an improved program of secondaryschool mathematics, the Commission has not torn out existing programs by their roots. What it proposes is rather a modification of the traditional curriculum. The Commission realizes that the rapidity with which its suggestions can be adopted will depend on each school situation. Some schools will be able to move rapidly toward the Commission's goal; some, more slowly. But the recommendations are such that mathematics teachers may implement them slowly or rapidly, as their training permits.

The Commission's recommendations are not so much changes in course content as in concept, in spirit, in the point of view of instruction, and in teaching emphasis.

CHANGES IN CONTENT

Of course, there are changes in content, too. The most important of these are:

I. Instruction in algebra should provide some introduction to the methods of deductive reasoning, and also continue to impart important manipulative skills.

2. The character of high-school geometry should be drastically changed to include an approach that goes beyond Euclid's *Elements*. The number of theorems should be reduced, coordinate geometry should be introduced, and some geometry of space incorporated with that of the plane.

3. Trigonometry also should be approached on a new basis to meet contemporary applications in science and technology. The important uses of trigonometry no longer center on solving plane and spherical triangles by logarithmic computations.

4. High-school students should be introduced to statistical thinking. A one-semester course in the second term of grade 12 in introductory probability with statistical applications is suggested.

To meet its goals of strong preparation, both in concepts and in skills, for college mathematics at the level of calculus and analytic geometry, the Commission suggests a revamped four-year program be-

ginning in grade 9. For example, the Commission's recommended program could be developed in the following suggested sequence (although other plans are possible):

RECOMMENDED PROGRAM

- I. Grade 9-Elementary Mathematics I. The theme of this course would be the nature and use of variables, with the elementary ideas and notions of "sets" employed to simplify, clarify, and unify the introduction to algebra. At the same time, the students would work with both inequalities and equations, and the properties of the number system would be kept to the fore at all times.
- 2. Grade 10-Elementary Mathematics II. In this year the theme would be geometry and deductive reasoning. Some coordinate geometry and the essentials of solid geometry and space perception would be incorporated with a somewhat curtailed treatment of traditional plane geometry.

3. Grade 11—Intermediate Mathematics. This year would include algebra and elementary trigonometry centered around coordinates, vectors, and complex numbers. The theme would be real and complex numbers.

4. Grade 12-The Commission offers three suggested programs for grade 12. In the first two of these, a core course on elementary functions would be taught during the first semester; introductory probability would complete the year in the one program and introduction

to modern algebra in the other. For a third possibility, elementary functions would be enlarged to a full year by additional topics.

But any program for improving secondary-school mathematics can be effective only if there are good teachers at the elementary and secondary levels to implement it. The elementary-school teacher is important to the high-school program, for it is in the lower grades that the student receives or fails to receive an adequate foundation for later studies of mathematics.

TEACHER PREPARATION

Good teaching of mathematics, then, is vital to the success of the Commission's program. Ways and means of insuring a knowledge and appreciation of the spirit of contemporary mathematics among secondary-school teachers must, therefore, also be considered with great care.

The preparation of future teachers trained to handle the new program in mathematics should be relatively simple since new courses can be designed and offered in their college training. In fact, such courses are already being given in some colleges. The problem of the teacher already in service, however, is more difficult, since he or she must acquire a knowledge of the new mathematics while doing a daily teaching job.

The answer here lies in the many and varied programs for in-service training of teachers. These programs can and should be adapted to give our present mathematics teachers a working knowledge of the materials needed to put the Commission's program into use. Summer courses, special conferences and institutes, study groups, professional meetings, self-study teachers' guides, and new books all offer ways to meet and solve this problem.

The colleges and universities have an important role in helping to provide the secondary-school teacher with not only a knowledge but a grasp of the exciting implications of mathematics, both old and new. Colleges must make some curriculum revisions, particularly in the subject-matter courses designed for teachers of mathematics. In the graduate field, courses designed to prepare mathematics teachers should carry the same degree credit as those that prepare for mathematical research.

COLLEGE REQUIREMENTS

The colleges and universities must also revise their entrance requirements and their curriculums so as to take the new mathematics program into consideration. Reforms in the teaching of secondaryschool mathematics will lose much of their effectiveness without some related reforms by the colleges. Better articulation between school and college is needed. The Commission advocates that colleges restate their entrance requirements simply in terms of the length of time spent in study of collegepreparatory mathematics—as is done

in every other subject. It also advocates revision of college freshman courses where necessary to make effective use of the new program recommended for the high schools.

The Commission's program, it should be noted, is based on the belief that the standard college-freshman mathematics course should be at the level of analytic geometry and calculus. It would be an inexcusable waste if students who had completed the full secondary-school program outlined here were to take traditional courses in college algebra and trigonometry. The traditional freshman courses simply will not suffice.

Contemporary mathematics—both as regards its development and its application—is geared to the needs of a highly complex technological society. The teaching of the subject at all levels is, in many instances, far behind the demands being made on it by such developments as the exploration of space, nuclear science, the social sciences, business, industry, and by the growth of the subject itself.

A program of secondary-school mathematics, with a new outlook and a new spirit, reinforced by related revisions in the teaching of the subject in the colleges and the universities and by a revitalized program of teacher training, will open the way for a twentieth-century approach to the study of the universe around us.

Resolving the Conflict Between Academic and Professional Training of Teachers

JOHN S. BRUBACHER

In The University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin

N its long history, American education has often been the object of criticism, but never so shrill as since the end of World War II. Not least shrill has been the strife between teachers themselves over how to prepare future teachers.

Professors of liberal arts are dubious about the claims of pedagogy and, even if these be conceded, are confident too much time is allotted to them. Professors of pedagogy, on the contrary, are convinced that they have developed an important discipline in the past 75 years of which the professors of liberal arts remain largely unaware. Unhappily these contentions have been uttered too frequently in a manner intended, not so much to mend current practice, as to humiliate its proponents. Teacher training, consequently, which ought to draw strength from the cooperation of these two groups, has been weakened by their fratricidal strife.

To the layman it must seem stupid that there should be this conflict of interest among educators. What could be more logical than that the future teacher needs to know both the subject matter he is going to teach and the theory and practice of teaching it! If this is so clear to the layman, why is it

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not even more clear to professional educators?

One need not go far back in the past of teacher training to come on the main cause of the strife between academicians and pedagogues. It is simply that they don't know each other! And how could they? When formal teacher training was first undertaken a little over a century ago it was the normal schools and not the colleges which made it their business. The normal schools had campuses and faculties of their own. These were often widely separated from the campuses of liberal arts colleges.

If you think of the college or the university as the main trunk line of higher education, normal schools were obviously off the main line. Consequently, they suffered from a kind of intellectual isolation. Teacher training developed a split personality. The subject-matter spe-

cialists were on one campus and the pedagogical specialists on another. Neither had an opportunity to draw strength from the other. Worse vet, each, focusing on his own virtue, saw principally the shortcomings of the other and, in time, creeted in imagination a distorted stereotype of the other. Ironically, continued isolation tended to bring the stereotype into existence.

This isolation and stereotyping continued even after colleges themselves began to set up departments of education and after normal schools—as they became teachers colleges—began to include liberal studies. Although by this time professors of pedagogy and professors of liberal arts taught on the same campus, the intellectual gulf between the two frequently has remained as great as if they had been taught on separate campuses.

The layman may well inquire how all this happened in the first place. The complete answer is a complicated one and lies submerged in the entire history of education. But here, very briefly, a few contributing factors may be pointed out. In the middle of the nineteenth century, pedagogy was still in the empirical stage of its development. And the colleges, almost oblivious of pedagogy, maintained that all a teacher needed to know to teach was the subject matter he was going to dispense. Teachers were born, not trained.

When the public school system began to expand very rapidly, a

new group of leaders sprang up to extend-with considerable success -the frontiers of educational theory and practice. But their very success ultimately proved something of a drawback It led to discontent and more and more vigorous criticism among the subject-matter specialists, "Anti-intellectual," for example, was a word applied to Dewey's educational philosophy. And one critic wrote that professors of pedagogy were "held in almost universal suspicion in academie circles and are not infrequently looked on by their colleagues as downright charlatans."

Today, the concession has been made by many that the professional study of education does have an intellectual and theoretic structure which makes it worthy of inclusion as a faculty of higher education. But even so, there is still one current circumstance which tends to blur this conclusion. The training of many of the teachers currently teaching in our schools is deplorably low. How can this be if preparation for teaching rests, as proponents claim, on a theory and practice having broad philosophic and scientific origins?

The explanation is that except for the depression years there has been an excess of school rooms over qualified school teachers in this country for well nigh a hundred years. Since the demand for trained teachers has outrun the supply, it has been continually necessary to lower the standards not only of training but also of re-

cruitment just to provide any teacher at all for many classrooms. The first items to suffer when standards are lowered are subject matter and theory. When teachers are being prepared in the quickest time possible to enter the classroom, the emphasis is always on empirical rule of thumb procedures.

This is the way it was in the nineteenth century when Horace Mann and Henry Barnard first began to call attention to the importance of teacher training. This is the way it is in the twentieth century when reliance is put on "emergency training" programs. Consequently, if these standards seem abominably low to the professor of liberal arts, let him remember many professors of education are no happier about these conditions than he is.

But the question now is: Where do we go from here? Should we cut education down to size—that is, back to an empirical discipline, as some critics urge? Or should we go forward and try to strengthen the professional study of education as an intellectual discipline? Is this, indeed, an open question? If it were, it seems by choice as well as force of circumstance, we ought to go forward in an endeavor to clarify and improve our body of educational theory.

Education today is trying to pass rapidly through the same stage which other professional disciplines have traversed in earlier times. Medicine, for instance, not only passed through an empirical period but

also one in which it was never far from charlatanry. Or take business, one of the most recent disciplines to be admitted to the status of a faculty in our leading universities. It is not so long ago that prominent merchants, bankers, and industrialists thought that business could only be learned by apprenticeship to practice, by on-the-job experience. This is no longer the case.

We may well expect education to follow a similar course. It takes time, however, to develop a substantial body of education theory. For the time being, therefore, it behooves the academic community -both the professors of liberal arts and the professors of education-to be patient and tolerant. The former must realize that the latter are definitely seeking to place their disciplines on a respectable intellectual basis, one which should increasingly become indispensable, even in the teaching of liberal arts. The latter must realize, in turn, that they do not possess an autonomous discipline, that, indeed, they are extensively dependent on the traditional liberal disciplinesparticularly philosophy, psychology, sociology, anthropology, political science, and economics-for their basic theories. By mutually respecting each others' objectives and by realizing their mutual dependence, the professors of subject matter and the professors of education might join hands and present the strongest support for the strongest program of teacher training in a hundred years.

Valedictorians Are Obsolete

DENTON L. COOK

In The Clearing House

IKE most of our nation's 30,-000 high schools, your high school probably selects a valedictorian. This student is popularly thought of as the most apt scholar of the class. But is she?

I say "she" because more girls than boys become class valedictorians. The typical valedictorian is a pleasant, industrious girl of aboveaverage ability. She is likely to be a compliant person, studious by nature. She is regular in school attendance. Her work is neat, accurate, and always in on time. She probably has not taken the most difficult courses offered in her school. She may even have been selective in respect to the particular teachers who taught her. It is quite likely her parents have status in the community. Certainly, in the eyes of her teachers, she is the desirable type of student.

The selection of the valedictorian is usually accomplished by tallying the teacher marks received and ranking the students accordingly. This is done most frequently on the basis of subjects taken during the school career without any consideration of course content or difficulty. Marks received in easy courses or under lenient teachers are given as much weight as are more difficult courses or those pursued under exacting teachers.

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There is every indication that the selection of valedictorians on the basis of teacher marks received does not necessarily reveal the true valedictorian or the most able scholar. While teacher marks are thought of as measuring academic achievement, they frequently reflect such variables as behavior, effort, attitudes, and even parental status. Moreover, there is a great deal of difference between teachers, departments, and schools on the matter of grading and the meaning of a given mark. (A college registrar recently told of the failing college efforts of the valedictorian from a small high school. The failure was due to limited ability. In contrast, some of the students from large high schools who had ranked only in the middle of their high-school classes achieving academic success in their

Furthermore—it must be added—influences outside of school and poor home environment often place some otherwise able students at a distinct disadvantage

Research has revealed no significant difference in the scholastic ability of boys and girls. Yet more girls become valedictorians than do boys on the basis of teacher marks. Several reasons cause this bias in favor of girls:

GIRL BIAS

(a) Girls reach puberty, on the average, about two years earlier than boys. From the standpoint of maturity, girls have a distinct advantage over boys through high school.

(b) Feminine traits enable girls to make a better impression on teachers than boys do. This often is reflected in school marks, although it has nothing to do with knowledge of the subject.

(c) More of the able boys than of the able girls take the more difficult courses in mathematics and science. There is a general tendency for marks to be lower in these disciplines than marks some other subjects.

In one high school which graduates about 175 students a year, a study covering 15 years revealed some interesting facts: On the basis of teacher marks, girls were high during 14 of the 15 years. But the results of a testing program administered in the spring of the senior year (an academic ability test and achievement tests in science, mathematics, English, and social studies were used) placed boys high during 12 of the 15 years. In several instances, students who ranked at the top of their class on

teacher marks were unable to place in the upper third of the class when test rankings were used. During the 15 years only one student was first in the class on both methods of ranking.

Two of the larger high schools in Florida no longer attempt to name a valedictorian. The schools accept the fact that such a procedure based on unweighted teacher marks is essentially an invalid procedure. Instead, these schools recognize a limited number of students as honor scholars. Selection of them is based on a composite ranking which takes into consideration not only their rank on teacher marks but their rank on tests covering ability and achievement in the academic subjects.

There is recognition here that, despite the flaws in teacher marks, the ability to make good grades in high school is still one of the best predictors of the ability to do the same in college. And the additional use of tests in the composite ranking has the advantage of equalizing the recognition opportunities for the student who takes difficult courses and has a rententive mem-

It has been interesting that, during the several years this procedure has been in effect, honor scholars are about evenly divided between boys and girls. It is felt that students who are able to achieve high ranking on both teacher marks and on ability and achievements are the true scholars of the schools.

The 1959 Horace Mann Centennial

by JOY ELMER MORGAN President, Senior Citizens of America Former Editor, NEA Journal

HORACE MANN was born at Franklin, Massachusetts, May 4, 1796. He died at Yellow Springs. Ohio, August 2, 1859—one century ago this year. His significance to America and the world compares to that of Washington, Jefferson, and Lincoln. He gave us the schools that built America and that are now being copied around the world. The lives of its great men and women are the best heritage of any nation, and every American school child has a right to be taught that to Horace Mann more than to any other he owes the debt of free schooling.

We may think of Horace Mann's years as being divided into seven

First, the harsh childhood and youth on a New England farm, his father dying when Horace was 13.

Second, the student years at Brown University and at the pioneer law school at Litchfield, Con-

Third, the struggling years as a young lawyer at Dedham, Massa-

Fourth, the years of growth and service as a young statesman in the Massachusetts House and Senate, where he sponsored many progressive and reform measures.

Fifth, his service as first secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, from which post he led the American educational revival. These years, between 1837 and 1848, built up the common schools

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and libraries, established normal schools, and produced the twelve famous reports that will always remain classics. They gave us the fourth of July oration of 1842 which might be compared in significance to Washington's farewell address:

Pour out light and truth as God pours sunshine and rain. No longer seek knowledge as the luxury of a few but dispense it amongst all as the bread of life. Summon the Collect whatmightiest intellects. ever of talent or erudition, or eloquence or authority the broad land can supply and go forth and teach this people. For, in the name of the living God, it must be proclaimed that licentiousness shall be the liberty; and violence and chicanery shall be the law; and superreligion; and the selfdestructive indulgence of all sensual and unhallowed passions shall be the only happiness of that people who neglect the education of their children.

Sixth, the strenuous years in

Congress from 1848 to 1852, a most important period that has been too little studied.

Seventh, and last, the building of Antioch college at Yellow Springs, Ohio-a struggle against pioneer conditions, poverty, prejudice, bigotry, and pettiness, which preceded his death. He had worked himself to the utmost during these difficult years and during the spring of 1859 the college had been reorganized and could look ahead with new promise. There was the crowded commencement month of June. Then followed the final illness during July which may have been typhoid. Mrs. Mann was also ill. Horace must have had some premonition of the end when he closed his last address to students and community on June 29, 1859: "I beseech you to treasure up in your hearts these my parting words: "Be ashamed to die until you have won some victory for humanity."

So long as that admonition shall be followed democratic civilization will be safe.

AN any satisfactory ground be assigned why algebra, a branch which not one man in a thousand ever has occasion to use in the business of life, should be studied by more than 2300 pupils, and bookkeeping, which every man, even the day laborer, should understand, should be attended to by only a little more than half that number? Among farmers and roadmakers, why should geometry take precedence of surveying; and among seekers after intellectual and moral truth, why should rhetoric have double the followers of logic?—Horace Mann in Sixth Report, Annual Reports on Education.

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A Bill of Rights for Classroom Teachers

BRUCE McDowell

In Phi Delta Kappan

MUCH that has been said in the so-called "controversies in education" has been written by college professors and school administrators. As is so often the case, the classroom teacher has not been consulted. Since he is "on top" of the situation, it would seem that he should be well qualified to state his views regarding current problems in education.

I think that we teachers are partially at fault for the absence of material stating our viewpoints. A combination of overwork, laziness, and the fear of saying anything which may label us as "progressives," "reactionaries," or "trouble-makers" no doubt accounts for the absence.

This teacher is going to depart from the norm, however, and take the proverbial bull by the horns. But before launching into my tirade, I want to make something clear. I have had a great deal of contact with college professors and school administrators. As a group, I have found professors of education to be kind, well-meaning, and genuinely gracious people. Their one shortcoming is the inability to relate theory to reality. As for school administrators, I have had the good fortune of working for the most part with honest, capable Their greatest failing has men.

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been to accept without question the theories of the education professors.

Here is the Bill of Rights for classroom teachers that I personally advocate:

Article 1: The Right to Teach

This right includes freedom from clerical work, collecting money, unnecessary work on committees, collecting tickets, latrine duty, and ushering. The countless hours spent by classroom teachers on these tasks could be better utilized in working with students, correcting papers, preparing for class, and doing research. *Please* let us teach.

Article II: Freedom from "Democratic" Administration of Schools

I refer here to the "democratic process" which administrators so benignly apply to book selection and curriculum planning. This device is used to "educate" the staff and to achieve what the administration wanted in the first place.

Article III: Freedom from Frustration

Frustration and guilt feelings result when the teacher finds that the high-sounding theories expounded by professors of education do not ahvavs work in the classroom. For the conscientious teacher who sincerely attempts to apply the philosoplay, psychology, and methodology advanced by these "grandstand quarterbacks," the resulting failure is devastating to morale. Add to this the fact that today's teacher is constantly bombarded by an ever-increasing barrage of changing thought in the field of education, and you have a discouraged and confused staff. As a result of summer-school attendance, inservice training, and professional reading, the teacher begins to wonder if anything is valid in education.

Article IV: Freedom from Educational Opportunists

There is an ever-growing number of opportunists who have infested our teachers and administrative ranks. These egotistical "knowit-alls" have no concern for children and less for teachers. They try to outdo one another by writextolling ing magazine articles theories which would lead one to question their sanity. Typical of such articles are "Correlating Football with the Language Arts," and "Typing for First Graders." There seems to be a contest among these gentlemen to see who can write the most absurd article. For some strange reason the winner is given national recognition as an educational leader.

Article V: The Right to Question

Over the past two or three decades a dogma has evolved in education which supposedly has its roots in the philosophy of John Dewey. This dogma is supported by the majority of our professors of education because they sincerely believe in it. This "progressive" approach to education is also supported with zealous vigor by the opportunists. They defend it with great shouts of indignation when it is attacked. It has become almost a sacrilege to question any phase of this philosophy. Since the classroom teacher is by far the closest to the teaching situation, he ought to be consulted now and then. Professors of education and many school administrators might get some surprising answers if they consulted the classroom teacher on such "accepted" concepts as multiple books, group dynamics, teacherand the selfpupil planning, contained classroom.

Now, many of these concepts have proven themselves to be worthwhile and of much practical value. Nevertheless, the fact remains that a teacher should be able to question these concepts.

Article VI: The Right to Maintain Order and Discipline in Our

This right includes freedom from those who tab any attempt on the part of the teacher to maintain order and discipline as "regimentation." These people have contributed to the present mess we find uted to the present mess we find ourselves in regarding student attitude. As a result of their efforts,

teachers now find themselves strapped and made helpless by school-board regulations forbidding any form of disciplinary action. We have bowed and scraped, reasoned and cajoled, pleaded and counseled, passed the tough, hostile youngsters when they should have failed, and, in effect, done everything the professors of education have dictated. So, I'm afraid that if we in the public schools have failed, the guilt must be shared by more than the teachers.

Article VII: The Right to Be Treated and Respected as Members of a Profession

It seems that whenever teachers reach the point at which they will assert themselves regarding salary, working conditions, curriculum, and methodology, they are cautioned to be more "professional." Teachers with four, five, and six years of college behind them are expected to sit idly by and raise no voice of protest while they are publicly debased.

Article VIII: Freedom from the "Let's-Throw-Everything-Out" Boys

This group is made up largely of the previously mentioned opportunists and egotists who are trying to make a name for themselves. These boys are "agin" everything in the curriculum and teaching techniques which show the slightest signs of age, regardless of their usefulness. These same men have taken the philosophy of John Dewey and twisted, distorted, raped, and misrepresented the thought of this great educational

philosopher so as to make it appear that he was opposed to all forms of academic learning. These people oppose textbooks, workbooks, spelling books, examinations, grading systems, and, most of all, drill. Rarely is anything suggested proposed as a substitute, other than chaos. It appears that the members of this group believe that through some mystical power the teacher will be able to create a learning sitnation. When pressed as to what the formula for successful teaching is, these gentlemen talk vaguely about making children happy.

Article IX: The Right to Drill

Of all the restraints placed on teachers in recent years, the one in opposition to drill is the most absurd. Recently there has been some backtracking by a few educational professors when they admit that "meaningful" drill is legitimate. But previous to this admission the word carried much the same naughty connotation as "formal discipline." Please, Mr. Education Professor, tell me where Van Cliburn, Anna Pavlova, Lily Pons, Albert Einstein, and Werhner Von Braun would have achieved their particular skills if it hadn't been for hard work and concentrated study, which is in itself drill.

Article X: The Right to Respect for the Teacher's Viewpoint

Far too often the opinions of the classroom teacher are not sought or are ignored. This right should include freedom from the glib, all-knowing reception so often accorded the opinions of teachers.

New Resources Are Available

The Rising Trend of Early Apritude Testing

HENRY CHAUNCEY

In The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

ECENTLY there has been a growing awareness of the importance of early identification of the aptitudes and interests of boys and girls. And during the last several years there also has been a rapidly growing recognition that guidance, formerly begun at the 11th or 12th grade, should start at least as far back as the seventh, eighth, or ninth grade. It also has been learned that tests administered in junior-high-school years are about as predictive of future success-say in college-as are tests administered toward the end of senior-high school.

This somewhat surprising conclusion has been supported by many studies. The results have made it clear that one does not put off testing to the last years of secondary school in order to get a good indication of the abilities of students. The fact that tests administered in junior-high-school grades predict about as well as tests administered three or four years later does not mean that tests are infallible. Tests, of course, are far from infallible, but they still are remarkably helpful.

Now I would like to make three points which need to be stressed regarding the early use of tests for guidance and counseling. First

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of all, test scores should not be used by themselves, but along with other information, such as grades in various courses, extracurricular activities, and the judgment of teachers. Secondly, there should be successive testings over a period of years in order to increase the reliability of the appraisal based on Thirdly, great care test results. should be taken in the proper interpretation of the scores made on tests and in the careful use of such information along with the other information available about the student.

Tests, like the navigator's sextant, may be good in themselves, but if improperly used they give wrong bearings and result in setting an improper course. Wisely used, interpreted with care, and balanced against the other information the school record supplies, test scores are very useful in counseling. They give a new and independent slant on the student, one that is unaffected by many of the subjective elements that can affect grades in school. Through the judicious use of the test results and the school record, boys and girls can be helped to make wiser decisions with regard to their future.

I believe that it was because of this that the Congress included Title V in the National Defense Education Act. Under its provisions assistance is to be given to states to support testing programs and for guidance purposes. National testing programs such as the College Board and National Merit and, now, the more extensive testing made possible by the National Defense Education Act, offer new opportunities and new incentives for good academic guidance in the junior-high school. The National Defense Education Act focuses attention on guidance in the juniorhigh school, and to the extent that state departments of education succeed in implementing the spirit of the Act, junior-high schools will be strengthened generally in their resources for good guidance.

TITLE V, NDEA

One should be clear on what is involved, and what is not involved, in Title V of the National Defense Education Act. In the first place, it is not going to force new testing programs on the schools of any state. So far as can be ascertained at this time, no new state-wide testing program will spring into being as a consequence of the federal support. Rather, the states

which have not had formal statewide testing programs in the past seem to be planning to implement the purposes of Title V in ways that will improve or extend the testing done locally by school districts.

Secondly, it is apparent that the U.S. Office of Education is living up to its predicted role and is permitting the states wide latitude in planning their use of the funds. The state departments of education, therefore, are the key agencies. The clear implication of this development is that the junior-high-school educators who have an interest in the testing work to be supported by federal funds need to work closely with their own state departments of education.

Thirdly, the efficiency with which the NDEA funds are used will vary greatly from state to state, depending on the creative imagination used by the state department of education and on the department's ability to draw on the thinking of school people in the state for both ideas and action. appears that in several states the ideas and decision about the use of NDEA funds are likely to be made by a relatively small group, members of the state department or those close to it. In these states, the utilization of federal funds will be meager, late, unimaginative, and probably unfruitful.

On the other hand, in states like California, Florida, Georgia, and Minnesota, the departments of education will use the brains of many school people in exploiting the new

resources, and are likely to utilize NDEA funds much more efficiently.

The moral of all this, I think, is that the dangers to junior-high schools of new state testing programs being imposed on them are nonexistent. There is no reason to view with alarm Title V of the National Defense Education Act. There is every reason delighted at the new resources that are being made available for the improvement of guidance. these are only opportunities. them to be developed in ways that will be fruitful requires the participation of the junior-high-school leaders in each state, so that the program which is planned and developed will be of maximum benefit to all of the boys and girls in the schools throughout the state.

Education in the schools of today is far more complex than it was a generation ago. The society into which students go after finishing their education is also more complex. Guidance assumes importance than greater In the counseling of stubefore. dents, tests, though no miracle drugs, are nevertheless greatly useful. Through the cooperation of the leaders in junior-high-school education and state department officials, real advances in guidance can be made this year and in the years ahead to the great benefit of all our youth.

Testing - Testing - Testing

- If you have a boy who just can't learn in your class, don't despair. He may be a late bloomer. It has now come out that Dr. Wernher von Braun, the missile and satellite expert, flunked math and physics in his early teens.—From Mississippi Educational Advance.
- The football player for a southern school was having trouble with his grades. Since his services were needed, he was called into the president's office for re-examination. A one-question examination was decided on. The question was, "What is the capital of Florida?" The lad sweated tion was, "What is the capital of Florida?" The lad sweated over the question and finally wrote "Monticello." He over the officials, in checking the answer, said that passed. The officials, in checking the answer, said that 100 was perfect, and Monticello is 25 miles from Tallalov was perfect was

Point 10 Program for Guidance

HILE the importance of guidance has been recognized, in principle, in the American school system since its inception, the inadequacies of our guidance program were not recognized until very recently; and it was not until the passage of the National Defense Education Act in 1958 that anyone attempted to do anything about these inadequacies on a national scale.

Most of the money authorized by the Act will go to the states to help them set up their own guidance programs. The effectiveness of the programs, therefore, will depend ultimately on the wisdom of the persons who must take the leadership in developing them on the state and local level. Unfortunately, many of these persons are not themselves well prepared. If we are to have a guidance program that will live up to expectations, certain principles must be observed.

1. We must be concerned, first of all, with the development of persons. Because a large part of guidance has to do with testing and evaluating, there is a temptation to pin labels on people. We do put people in categories as a means of helping ourselves think about their problems. But we must realize that no person, in the true sense, can

H. Fred Heisner
In The School Executive

ever be classified. And if we believe firmly in the importance of each person, our aim must be the complete development of each one.

- 2. We must be concerned with citizenship. We fail the community unless we help each pupil to become an effective citizen. We must see that the pupil participates in the life of the school, for if he is a good citizen of his school, he is more likely to become a good citizen of his community. We are rightly concerned that pupils be in the proper courses, but we should also be concerned that they are in their proper places as members of the student community.
- 3. Guidance must deal, in part, with the personal life of the pupil. When a youngster's personal life is out of gear in any way, the traumatic effect may be so great that progress in all other spheres slows or is stopped. A counselor helps

H. Fred Heisner is Superintendent of Redlands Public Schools, California. Reported from The School Executive, LXXVIII (May 1959), 66-67. solve these personal problems by contacting the person or resources that will make it possible for the pupil to solve his own problem.

4. Each person will have to earn a living and each person has a contribution to make to society. Unless he can do this, all our other efforts may be futile. Counselors should be skilled in vocational guidance and aware of the possibilities open

to young people.

5. Education and guidance have the same objectives. The guidance worker and the curriculum builder must work hand in hand. curriculum builder must be alert to the possibilities of adjusting the curriculum to make it more beneficial to the pupil; the guidance worker must be alert to curriculum development in order to help the pupil make better use of his opportunities.

6. The guidance program must he positive. Too often the counselor talks to the pupil about what he should have done, or to the parent to explain the child's failures. If a guidance program is ever to be anything more than just another appendage to the bureaucratic school system, it must learn It must to anticipate problems. help the youngster to see his educational opportunities as an adventure. This is our challenge.

7. We must help the pupil integrate what he has learned. counselor who has a good grasp of vocational counseling will be in a position to help the pupil to integrate what he has learned. One's

vocational plan becomes the reason for learning many things. As the things to be learned form a pattern of relationship to the vocation, they begin to relate to each other. This, then, becomes the core of his integration.

8. A good guidance program must essentially be teacher centered. To succeed, the counselor must have the cooperation and help of the teacher. No one in the school has a better opportunity to learn about the pupil than the teacher. And if the teacher can be helped to make use of his own opportunity, he will make a superior contribution to the guidance program.

9. A good guidance program should provide for adequate counseling. The pupil must solve the problem himself; the counselor can only help. This involves listening on the part of the counselor. But many counselors do not listen for lack of time. This forces them to attempt a shortcut by giving the

pupil the answer.

10. The guidance program is interested in the growth and development of all the persons with whom in contact-teachers, parents, administrators, and pupils. The counselor is in a strategic spot to improve relationships among all of these people. He may be able to help pupil and teacher get along better. He may smooth out the rough spots among teachers, or between teachers and administrators, or between pupil and parent, or among parents.

What Reading Skills Are Involved?

Promoting Growth in Critical Reading

FRANCES ORALIND TRIGGS

In The Reading Teacher

RITICAL reading is truly the interpretation of symbols. Historically, when there was little printed matter available, people's behavior was guided by interpretation of symbols, but the symbols were not the printed word. Learning came only from an individual's limited surroundings. In this day, when rich written sources are available, we tend to forget that all reading—especially critical reading—is based on interpreting symbols.

And it is apparent, when we carefully consider the matter, that a word or picture becomes a symbol only when meaning is attached to it. The meaning which is attributed to a symbol is not intrinsic within the passage or the picture or the experience. It is there only when the reader supplies that meaning.

Reading can be considered a one-way process, a two-way process, or a three-way process, depending on the purpose for which the reading is being done. If a person is reading to get information only, then all he must do is to find a specific date, name, or other fact, and his purpose is accomplished. If his purpose is to determine the accuracy of the fact, then reading becomes a two-way process, for the information gained from reading must be checked against informa-

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tion the reader has or will obtain from some other source.

But if the purpose of reading is to gain knowledge, to modify or add to the information the reader already has, or to gain background for interpreting what the author says, then reading has become a three-way process. The reader reads not only to add to understandings he has, but to modify and perhaps change those understandings. He also must judge as he reads whether the author's background and subject matter check with his own previous reading and other real and vicarious experiences. More than that, he must check more than one author in this manner in order to make such judgments.

TWO CONTRIBUTIONS

Critical reading, then, requires a contribution by both the author and the reader, and an interplay between these two contributions which usually results in a new understanding—something more than

or different from the original contributions. Thus critical reading, at least in one sense, results in learn-

ing-in education itself.

comprehension skills Certain are necessary to critical reading: ability to read for main ideas and details and to distinguish between the two, ability to recognize inferences and conclusions, and ability to adapt the rate at which materials are read to the situation met. In order to apply these comprehension skills, a reader must have, or gain as he reads, understanding of the words used by the author. These understandings of words are gained from actual experiences, or from vicarious experiences which often come from reading. Thus again the reading process leads to an apparent parallelism with learning in general, or with education itself as broadly conceived.

Let us use as an example the principle of "reading readiness" in its narrow meaning as applied to preschool and early formal education. It can provide a simple parallel to growth in critical reading.

EXPERIENCES NECESSARY

All teachers accept the fact that a child, even if he can learn to recognize words, often cannot understand, cannot truly "read," these words. Thus, it is important for him to have in his auditory or meaning vocabulary the words he is learning to recognize at sight and word-attack application of skills. And how does a child come new word? to understand a

Through experiences, using reading and avenues of learning other than reading, to supply meanings which are attached to words. These words then become the symbols of the experiences. This process is accomplished by stimulation through the various senses so necessary to education, especially in these early vears: smell, taste, feel, sight, and hearing. And the ability of one sense to stimulate another or others should not be forgotten either. A child may say, "That story makes me think of . . ." The listener (later the reader) begins to react to the stimulus of words by calling up previous experiences. Is this not a step toward his later doing so in critical reading?

What of the more advanced student? How does he gain the background he needs to read critically in the exact sciences, in the humanities, in the social sciences? This student becomes a critical reader when he has made of reading a three-way process mentioned earlier. And it can be three-way only when the reader's skills have become so sharp that they are almost automatically applied. The skillful golfer need not be told what club to use or what stroke to try. He senses it from the situation and can immediately call on the skills needed and shift to them automatically. Just so the reader must be able to shift from skill to skill, sometimes applying them in quick sequence, unconscious of the fact that this is what he is doing in order that his energies may all be on recalling, sorting, checking, and seeking understandings.

The student must learn all the reading skills in meaningful context, for the purpose of all reading is understanding. Reading has been described above as a one-way, twoway, or three-way process. These processes become increasingly complex but all are based on an understanding of what is read. Word reading is none of these, and the learning of word-attack skills without reference to the meaning of the words to which they are applied has two fallacies: first, there is no purpose in recognizing the word if it calls up no meaning, for without meaning the word cannot be used in reading; and second, the meaning of the context in which an unknown word is found should itself be used as a part of the attack the reader takes to make the word meaningful.

"WORD-READER" PROBLEM

There is probably no more difficult problem met by a teacher than that of helping the "word reader" to make reading meaningful. Such a student can often parrot all the word attack skills but cannot apply them. Research has established the importance of teaching all the reading skills, but they must be taught in meaningful context in order that they may be "transferred" and used in the reading of all materials and for all purposes. This is a most important principle.

Early psychological research which resulted in the finding that transfer of training is not automatic—must, in fact, be taught—is the basis of this principle. If word attack skills are not so taught, then it is almost certain that the reader will not be able to use them to help him when reading for purposes much less demanding than critical reading.

It can be said, therefore, that critical reading is similar to the pinnacle reached after a steep climb. It involves the use of all the reading skills the reader has. But it includes more. To read critically one must read beyond the material presented by the author and involve one's own experiences and previous learning. Critical reading also involves adding to the reader's knowledge.

It is evident that critical reading should be taught at every developmental level. The teacher of the first grade knows that teaching critical reading is as important as teaching word-attack and comprehension skills. Thinking is the basis of critical reading and every child challenged to use his ability can learn to read what, for his level of understanding, is critical.

It is the failure to emphasize at all levels the three-way reading processes, along with the teaching to the level of mastery of the basic reading skills, that causes some of our students to accept as truth whatever they see in print, failing to react personally in such a way that fallacies become apparent. They never have learned to read critically!

The Teacher of Art

JOSHUA TAYLOR

In The Journal of General Education

HE well-established art room in a modern school is well equipped and full of activity. It would be encouraging to believe that these qualities might result in the production of not only a new skill of hand but a taste for sound craftsmanship.

A hasty look at the average exhibition of upper-grade and highschool art is enough to dispel any illusion that one might have about craftsmanship. Obviously, the students have played at the craft, not worked at it. Aside from the exceptional student, the work is technieally poor and the design routine. Discouragingly enough, the students appear satisfied with their poor work. So far as achievement is concerned, it seems far below that of the old-fashioned carpenter shop and the sewing class. The clever techniques of ceramics and bent metal the student will soon forget. They are not, in spite of the teachers' hopes, going to enrich the idle hours of his later life. The work has served its purpose as a recreational activity and belongs to childhood.

The other achievement toward which we are told general training in art is directed is the development of artistic sensitivity or taste in matters of daily life. The success is not impressive. To judge from

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the reproductions that first-year college students select, the clothes they choose, the furniture they prefer, their taste is molded far more by popular magazines than by their schooling. Their training has been to do-not judge-works, and the fact that they have made jewelry does not seem to render their judgment more acute in buying it, any more than the fact that they have painted a picture makes Picasso more accessible. Since they were not aware of the nature of the choices they were making as they worked, or probably even aware that they were making choices, they are unaware that they have a capacity for personal judgment. They follow sheeplike the lures of popular fads quite as readily as if they had had no education at all.

Yet, with all its shortcomings, art teaching in the schools, as far as it goes, is doubtless better than it once was. One can hardly argue for the reinstatement of mimicking exercises or rote lessons in authoritarian taste. The fault has been that the obsessive "doing" has crowded

its way into areas in which it does not belong; it serves not only as an admirable therapeutic practice but as a substitute for art itself. Educators in their zeal have failed to distinguish between artistic activity for the child and art for the growing adult. It is not that the student cannot continue to profit from doing, but for the nascent adult simply doing is not sufficient. If the experience is to be worth while, it must engage his intellectual faculties.

But how does one go about developing the transition from child-ish doing to adult apprehending, and what kind of teacher is necessary for the successful operation? The second of these questions is clearly the more important, since any system is only as good as the teacher, and a sound teacher will find his own means.

WHAT KIND OF TRAINING?

What, then, should the training of a teacher in art be? In the first place, there should be a distinction made in the schools between vocational training in art and that available to the general student. If a craft is to be taught, it should be taught thoroughly, with due respect to technical excellence and if possible by a practicing artist. Actually, such vocational training in art has little place in the average high school but might be carried on more advantageously in a vocational institution.

But students who have little manual capacity and have no intention of pursuing a vocation of art (and this would include the majority of students) should not be cut off from art by these technical restrictions, any more than they should be allowed to lower the standards in professional classes. Their teacher might well be a different sort. He should be trained for his particular task, but not as if he were to teach only future painters.

To be sure, the prospective general teacher of art should have some training in the practice of art and should have some talent for it, although there is no need for his fancying himself an artist. He should, first of all, have a broad general education in the humanities, out of which his study of art should grow naturally and not be considered a thing apart. His initial studio training should be basic, directed toward the development of visual judgment, an understanding of two- and three-dimensional composition, and a sensitivity to the relationship of artistic form to material structure. This basic study should be sufficiently broad in its foundation to comprehend a wide variety of forms of art. The training should strive consciously to develop visual sensitivity and critical capacities rather than to perfect manual skills.

Closely linked to this studio training should be the analytical study of works of art so that matters of composition and form do not separate themselves from artistic content. The close association between the analysis of works by great artists, past and present, and studio practice should serve as a model of procedure for the future teacher, suggesting ways in which a bridge can be formed between what a student does himself and what is to be found in the work of an artist. The student should be taught to use his eyes, not simply caricature with his hand. He should discover that there is such a thing as creative looking as well as creative painting.

To support this combined training in analysis and doing, the prospective teacher should have a survey of the history of art, studying all major periods, including his own. In such a survey it is more important that he learn to look with genuine sympathy and comprehension on a wide variety of expressions than to memorize the cliches standing for historical processes.

EDUCATION COURSES

The third increment of the student's specialized training might be placed under the heading of education courses, for the courses would be devoted to both educational theory and practical problems for the classroom. It is under this latter category that training in various popular technical projects might fall. If the basic studio training has been sound, the study of different technical procedures need not be difficult.

Contrary to most present practice, the training in judgment must be basic and the study of tech-

niques secondary, not the other way around. To suppose that if a person works long enough at a particular craft he will automatically develop a widely applicable artistic judgment is a fallacy continuously and embarrassingly demonstrated by many art-school graduates. There must be a conscious intellectual effort to accompany the training of the hand. One can readily forgive an artist for not being able to judge works of art different from his own or for being verbally inarticulate; one cannot so easily forgive a teacher for these same characteris-

The ideal teacher of art, then, for all but the most specialized professional training, should be a person broadly educated in the arts, with a developed taste and the capacity for making clear the nature and bases of his judgments. He should be alive to the full content of art, not just its technical execution, and recognize it as a serious and meaningful human endeavor. At the same time, he should be sufficiently trained in the techniques of art to lead the students through their own work to an understanding of the works of others. He should be capable, in other words, of taking students through the period in which they are satisfied simply to make things and, still utilizing this desire to do, lead them at the crucial moment to a realization that these very means in the hands of an artist may continue to provide a with rewarding experiperson ences.

Handwriting and Child Development

LAWRENCE J. SMITH

In The National Elementary Principal

HAT children develop at different rates is generally acknowledged by educators. That this principle has implications for methods of teaching also is generally accepted. Here are suggested some ways in which this principle can be applied in teaching handwriting at the elementary level.

The first-grade teacher, with his knowledge of child growth and development, will be aware that not all the children in the group will be ready to begin writing at the same time. Some will be interested in and possess the necessary neuromuscular control for learning to write shortly after school begins in the fall. Others will not be ready for systematic writing experiences until the following spring. For an occasional child, instruction in handwriting might better be delayed until the second grade.

In most schools today the manuscript form of writing is taught in the early grades while cursive writing is generally introduced in the third grade. Regardless of the grade in which cursive writing is first presented it is probable that not all the children in the grade will be ready to change from manuscript to cursive writing at the same

Lawrence J. Smith is Associate Professor, Psychology and Education Department, Central Michigan University, Mount Pleasant, Reported from The National Elementary Principal, XXXVIII (February 1959), 13-14.

time. A child who is just beginning to gain skill with manuscript writing will more than likely become confused and frustrated if he is required to learn a new method of writing.

If a child has a rich environment where there is a choice of activities, one of the best indicators of his readiness to learn is his selection of activities. Many children show readiness for learning to write or for learning a different style of writing by voluntarily attempting to use these forms.

Handwriting scales are available and may be very useful in helping to measure handwriting maturity. But the teacher who recognizes that children's growth patterns are not identical will not insist that every child in the grade meet the same standards of achievement. Some children may make appreciable progress in handwriting dur-

ing the year and yet write less well than children who have average ability for that grade. To try to force such children to come up to a norm would be most unfair to them and would probably promote resentment and apathy rather than increased or even continued interest in improvement. In fact, children who show very little improvement may be progressing as much as is consistent with their current rate of over-all development. It is wise to encourage each child to set his own individual goal for improvement and to work toward the attainment of that goal.

In the early stages of instruction, children are provided with models of the letters. The teacher demonstrates how the letters are formed and also provides verbal explanations. At the outset, then, in group instruction, uniformity of style is encouraged. However, after children have gained some skill in forming the letters, faithful duplieation of a model and complete conformity to a particular style are no longer emphasized. At this stage in development, each child is permitted to develop his own personal style, so long as his writing is legible. His style should be one that is natural and comfortable for him, adapted to his own requirements.

Although children are not expected to strive to use the exact form found in any handwriting system and do not have daily periods throughout the grades devoted to writing lessons, they do spend some class time in practic-

ing better formation. In contrast with the usual method of teaching writing a few years ago, only occasionally are there lessons in which the entire class works on the same skill at the same time, Since children in a given class typically are performing at different levels and have different needs, instruction should be given primarily on an individual basis. Between the extremes of individual instruction and instruction for the entire class instruction to smaller will be groups, formed because a number of children all need help along the same line.

It should be noted that in younger children the small arm and wrist muscles are not so well developed as the larger muscles. Children are encouraged to write large letters in the lower grades and to form smaller letters as better neuromuscular control develops. Also, if a child is compelled to use materials requiring extensive use of the small muscles, he will find it more difficult to attain a legible form and will become fatigued sooner than if he were provided with materials appropriate to his capacity for muscular control.

Children just learning to write will use the chalkboard and they will also do much of their writing with crayons. In the early grades, pencils for beginners are used. For most children these give way to regular pencils in the third and fourth grades, while pen and ink are often used by children in grades four, five, and six.

A Science Specialist Is the Key

A Sixth-Grade Science Program

SANTO L. MARINO

In The Massachusetts Teacher

IXTH-GRADERS in Lexington, Massachusetts, are demonstrating the unusual capacities of youngsters to deal with an upgraded program in science. A special sixth-grade science program has convinced both the teachers and the parents of this community that elementary-school youth are capable of dealing with a more advanced science program than is commonly found in the elementary schools.

The idea of the program came from John Blackhall Smith, formerly superintendent of schools in Lexington. As a member of the Education Advisory Committee of Arthur D. Little Incorporated's Foundation he saw this as a way in which ADL might help stimulate a greater interest in science among young people.

Now, through a partnership with this leading industrial research organization, Lexington is expanding the instruction of science for young people. Funds provided by the Cambridge concern have enabled Lexington to begin a pilot science program that provides a science specialist for sixth-grade teachers to assist them in the development of a wide range of experiments and demonstrations for their science activities.

The program emphasizes a basic

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treatment of the physical sciences. The belief is that boys and girls at the sixth-grade level can and should acquire a knowledge of the fundamental concepts common to physical science; also, that each pupil needs to acquire basic skills for a better interpretation of his environment. Toward these ends, pupils are finding an understanding of concepts through an active association with the methods, the materials, and the tools of science.

Under the plan, the special science teacher regularly gives instruction in science. He visits the classrooms, conducts demonstrations and experiments with the aid of pupils. This method of instruction provides an unusual opportunity for both teachers and pupils to observe modern techniques and methods in the teaching of science. In addition, it offers teachers added resources and the opportunity to become stimulated toward a greater interest in teaching science.

During the summer of 1957, as the objectives of the program were set and detailed plans made, a "Science Guide" took shape. This guide includes the suggested approaches to the goals, an outline of the subjects to be covered by the program, and the organization of this subject matter into units of study to which the teacher could have immediate reference.

The units of study include specific problems, suggested experiments and demonstrations to aid in solving the problems, the concepts to be derived from the views of the problems in terms of discussions, and demonstrations and lists of reference that might be helpful to teachers and pupils in reaching additional conclusions regarding the basic scientific principles demon-These are strated by the lesson. the topics of study included in the program: magnetism, electricity, chemistry, water pressure, air pressure, heat and energy, light, sound, and practices in physics.

With such a guide available, the regular teacher has an opportunity either to prepare pupils for the visits of the special teacher or to follow up his demonstrations with additional class activities. This might involve a choice of materials from the teacher's reservoir of information or his direction of activities that would emphasize more demonstration or experimentation.

This course of action has not always been possible, since there are some elementary-school teachers

who have not experienced the complex problems of science in their training and who have not understood the technological developments that have changed our ways of living so rapidly and frequently. The regular visits of the special teacher, therefore, are the backbone of the entire program.

The Lexington teachers have reacted very favorably to the program. They say they need help in science perhaps more than they need the help of specialists in music, art, and gymnastics. principals have also supported the They believe it has program. stimulated considerable interest in science and has increased student achievement in this area of the curriculum. They point with pride to the numerous displays of science projects in their buildings and seem pleased with opportunities for creativity which the science program has afforded gifted children.

Among the pupils, it has been evident that the demonstration lessons have definitely stimulated a greater interest in science. It is most apparent, too, that pupils are thinking more science, doing more science.

This program, although new, shows promise of being a means which many school systems can use to start talented youngsters down the road to rewarding scientific careers.

HREE methods used to transfer heat, one pupil wrote, are: oil trucks, coal trucks, and fire trucks.—Science Review.

■ With Education in Washington *

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

Happy Birthday.—It is the first birthday of The National Defense Education Act and Washington is pleased with the first year's results.

The House Appropriations Committee complimented the Office of Education for the "expeditious wav it has inaugurated this vast new program." Secretary Flemming of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare said he was pleased with the investment made of the defense education dollars. U. S. Commissioner of Education Derthick expressed his satisfaction with "the involvement of hundreds of lay and professional leaders in the defense education activities."

The Act was signed by President Eisenhower September 2, 1958. For the first year, Congress appropriated \$115,000,000; for the second vear, \$150,000,000. Second year's spending will follow the pattern established during the first 12 months. Largest sum will go to beef up science, math, and foreignlanguage instruction. Second largest chunk of money will go for student loans. Third largest allotment will be designated for guidance and testing. The remaining activities to claim federal dollars will include vocational education, graduate fellowships, audio-visual media, and statistical services.

As educators look toward the second year under the Act, they foresee "a revitalization of education from the elementary to the

graduate school." Thousands of young people from low-income families will be able to continue their college education with the help of federal loans. Teachers in science, math, and foreign languages will be able to acquire better teaching equipment as well as improve their teaching skills. Guidance workers will have the choice of 50 institutes established for them at college and university summer institutes. Nineteen newly-established centers will offer college teachers new opportunities to learn modern languages not commonly taught in this country. Technical education will take a leap forward under the stimulus of new federal dollars being poured into vocational programs. At the same time, researchers in audio-visual methods will be investigating better ways to teach with new electronic tools, and state educational departments will seek to improve the accuracy. speed, and scope of their statistical services for local school systems.

of course, not everyone is happy with The National Defense Education let or its results. Some Congressmen are grumbling that the Act has given the Office of Education a new excuse "to build up its bureaucracy" (200 new employes have been added in eight months). College administrators are not uniformly happy either with the amounts available for student loans or with some of the rules under

which they have to dispense them. Some state departments of education fear the federal government's insistence on large scale testing of pupils. But so strong is the sentiment in favor of the Act that there is already serious talk of introducing legislation to extend its life beyond the four years originally specified in the law.

"Yes" Is Winning.—Should the U. S. Office of Education set up regional offices, with representatives empowered to deal directly with state and local school systems?

The Council of Chief State School Officers says no. The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare says yes, and is going ahead with the plan. As a result, two agents, representing the U.S. Commissioner of Education, will be stationed in the Department's offices located in Boston, New York, Charlottesville (Va.), Atlanta, Chicago, Kansas City, Dallas, San Francisco, and Scattle. One of the agents in each of the cities will handle problems arising out of the college-student loan program. The other person will have authority to deal with any of the activities in which the U.S. Office of Education is involved—and that is what is worrying the Council of Chief State School Officers.

A Council resolution states: "We believe any plan to establish Office of Education personnel in the regional offices of the HEW Department to work with state and local educational agencies will delay action, create confusion, add unnecessary expense, and undermine the maintenance of sound federalstate relationships in education."

Undeterred, the Office of Education is already filling these positions (they pay from \$12,770 to \$14,-000). Its justification: "These services in the regions will in no way affect the direct relationships between the Chief State School Officers and the Commissioner. On the contrary it is expected that the channels of communication and services will be greatly strengthened by this program. Moreover, these positions will be of great service generally to the regional programs of the other agencies in the Department."

Buyer's Guide.—The school administrator planning to buy a sphygmomanometer, a microprojector, or a head-demagnetizer for his teachers next year will not only be able to save money but will also get a better piece of equipment.

Provided, that is, he uses the Purchase Guide for Programs in Science, Mathematics, and Modern Foreign Languages. So claim the Guide's sponsors, which include the Educational Facilities Laboratories, U. S. Office of Education, National Bureau of Standards, and the Council of Chief State School Officers.

Publication of the Guide was announced with much fanfare in Washington, just in time to help school systems "in the wise and

economical purchase" of materials used in elementary and secondary teaching of science, math, and foreign languages. The Guide gives specifications and advice on buying 954 items of equipment. Because the teaching of science is becoming more complex, most of the Guide is devoted to a description of science material.

Edgar Fuller, executive secretary of the Chief State School Officers, says that the Purchase Guide should help school systems:

√ advance the content and quality of instruction in the sciences,
mathematics, and modern foreign
languages in elementary and secondary schools;

√ arm school authorities with information to enable them to obtain better values for school funds expended;

√ assist (reputable) manufacturers in making products of higher quality and greater educational usefulness at lower costs; and

√ discourage sales of shoddy, uneconomical, or inappropriate apparatus and materials.

Oath Still Needed.—Persons receiving cash under The National Defense Education Act must continue to prove their patriotism in two ways: by signing an affidavit that they do not belong to a subversive organization and by taking a loyalty oath to the United States.

Efforts to remove these requirements from the Act failed during the summer. On July 23 the Senate killed a measure by Senator Kennedy (D., Mass.) seeking to repeal the loyalty provisions from the Act. The vote was 49 to 42.

The Senate debated two days. Strong support for the Kennedy measure came from Senator Clark (D., Pa.). He summed up his arguments in these words:

"The important issue in this controversy is whether the Congress will permit a law to remain on the books which classifies as secondclass citizens students of the United States who desire to borrow money to complete their education. If a man is a tobacco farmer in Pennsylvania or North Carolina and wants to borrow money from the United States Government, he does not have to make an affidavit or take a loyalty oath. If he is a wheat farmer of the Great Plains and wants to borrow money from the U. S. Government, he does not have to make an affidavit or take an oath. . . .

"But if he is a young man going to college who wants to borrow money from the government, he is set aside as one of a suspect class which has to make an affidavit denying participation in subversive activities and take a loyalty oath in order to qualify."

But Senator Bridges (Rep., N. H.) replied:

"It has been argued here that we should not single out these young people when we do not ask others receiving government benefits to take an oath.

"To this, I say they should feel honored to be so singled out. I find

nothing wrong with asking all persons receiving any kind of U. S. benefits to pledge allegiance to the principles for which America stands.

"We have been told that such oaths should be repealed because they do not keep out subversives. This may be true, but these oaths serve another purpose. And that purpose is to remind these young Americans and all Americans that we all owe allegiance to our country and that we are privileged to be American citizens. In short, these oaths serve the purpose of patriotism."

During the two days of debate, efforts were made by other senators to strike out the affidavit requirement but keep the lovalty oath. This maneuvering failed.

World Is Still Round .- Teachers of elementary geography have an enlightening word from Washington. They need not worry about the findings stemming from the International Geophysical Year.

During the past 18 months, some 10,000 scientists from 66 countries have been studying our earth and its surroundings. Their reports are now being published. The National Council for the Social Studies has had a glimpse at the information. "Nothing new that is important for the elementary school has been unearthed," says the Council's 1959 Yearbook. The long-established concepts remain untouched:

(1) The earth is a huge sphere. (2) The earth is surrounded by the atmosphere. (3) The globe is made up of more water than earth.

The elementary teacher does have some relatively new ideas to stress, according to the Yearbook. One of these is the concept of regions. People living on the earth are strongly influenced by the kind of land, resources, and climate in which they live, regardless of artificial boundaries. The Yearbook would have teachers emphasize the fact that our earth is made up of stretches of grasslands, mountains, desert, rich and poor land. There are the Corn Belt, Wheat Belt, Dairy Belt. And then there are ideological reasons which bind people into regional groupings such as NATO and the United Arab Republic.

Getting deeper into the subject, the Yearbook says (in a different chapter from the one cited above): "The region is a device for illuminating the factors of a problem which otherwise would be less clearly understood. It is not an ob-

jective fact; rather, it is an intellectual concept. A region is justified if it illuminates the elements of a problem; is not justified if it obscures these elements. There is no such thing as a 'true region'; there are, in fact, as many regional sys-

tems as there are problems worth studying by geographic method." In short, the traditional method of studying the world country by

country has to undergo a change. That is one of the new viewpoints in geography, according to the

Council.

Educational News

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENCIES:

Baltimore, Md.: George B. Brain, superintendent at Bellevue, Wash., has been named successor to John H. Fischer, now dean of Teachers College, Columbia University,

Davenport, Iowa: Anthony Marinaccio, formerly superintendent at Kankakee, Ill., is now superintendent, succeeding Harold J. Williams.

retired.

Racine, Wis.: Ernest G. Lake has resigned to become superintendent of the Fullerton Union High School and Junior College District, Fullerton, Calif.

Lynwood, Calif .: Robert C. Mc-Caughin has been named successor to Donald D. Reber, who is now superintendent of Claremont Unified

School District, Calif.

Glen Cove, N. Y.: Robert M. O'-Kane, formerly superintendent at Ipswich, Mass., has succeeded Walter R. Smith, retired.

Skokie, Ill.: Clyde Parker, assistant superintendent at Oak Park, Ill., has been named superintendent of Niles Township Community High School.

San Antonio, Tex.: Virgil T. Blossom, formerly superintendent at Little Rock, Ark., is now superintendent of the North East Independent School District, succeeding William C. Reader.

Grand Forks, N. D.: Richard F. Barnhart, formerly assistant superintendent at Cedar Rapids, Iowa, is successor to the late Elroy H. Schroeder.

Birmingham, Ala.: Theodore R. Wright, formerly assistant superintendent, has succeeded L. Frazer Banks, retired.

Marietta, Ga.: Henry L. Kemp, formerly assistant superintendent. is successor to Shuler Antley, resigned.

Montgomery, Ala.: W. T. McKee,

formerly assistant superintendent, is now superintendent.

Beverly Hills, Calif.: Kenneth L. Peters, formerly associate superintendent, has succeeded R. G. Mitchell, resigned.

Bloomfield, N. J.: Frank B. Stover, formerly assistant commissioner of education, New Jersey, is now superintendent.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

University of Virginia, Charlottesville: Edgar F. Shannon, Jr., has been named successor to Colgate W. Darden, Jr., resigned.

State College for Teachers at Buffalo, N. Y.: Paul G. Bulger, formerly provost and professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia University, has succeeded Harvey M. Rice, now president of Macalester College, St. Paul, Minn.

Southern State College, Magnolia, Ark.: Imon E. Bruce, formerly superintendent at Hot Springs, Ark., became president in July.

State University of New York, Albany: Thomas Hale Hamilton, formerly vice president of Michigan State University, East Lansing, has been named successor to William S. Carlson, now president of the University of Toledo, Ohio.

Georgetown College, Ky.: Robert L. Mills, formerly chairman of the educational administration department, University of Texas, has been named president.

Central Michigan University, Mount Pleasant: Judson W. Foust been named successor Charles L. Anspach, retired, who was president for 20 years.

Pennsylvania Military College, Chester: Clarence R. Moll, formerly vice-president, became president in September, the first civilian president in the history of the college.

SEPTEMBER

State Teachers College, Kutztown, Pa.: Italo deFrancesco, formerly director of the division of art education, is now president, succeeding Quincy A. W. Rohrbach, retired.

Sarah Lawrence College, Bronxville, N. Y.: Harrison Tweed, a partner in the law firm of Milbank, Tweed, Hope & Hadley, New York, has succeeded Harold Taylor as president.

Park College, Parkville, Mo.: Paul H. Morrill, director of public relations at Wooster College, Ohio, has been appointed president.

Western Washington College of Education, Bellingham: James L. Jarrett, former president of the Great Books Foundation, has been named successor to W. W. Haggard, retired.

Antioch College, Yellow Springs, Ohio: James Payson Dixon, Jr., formerly commissioner of public health, Philadelphia, Pa., has succeeded Samuel B. Gould, now chancellor of the University of California at Santa Barbara.

Taylor University, Upland, Ind.: Evan H. Bergwall, president since 1951, resigned in June to return to the ministry.

University of Chattanooga, Tenn.: LeRoy A. Martin, formerly president of Tennessee Wesleyan College, Athens, is now president.

Hunter College, New York, N.Y.: George N. Shuster has announced his resignation, effective in 1960, to devote more time to writing.

Pasadena City College, Calif.: William B. Langsdorf, president since 1950, has resigned to become head of the new Orange County

State College.

George Washington University,
Washington, D. C.: Oswald S. ColWashington, D. dean of the faculties, has
clough, dean of the faculties, has
been named acting president. Cloyd
been named acting president, has
H. Marvin, former president, has

retired.

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS:

University of Akron, Ohio: Chester T. McNerney, formerly professor of education at Pennsylvania State University, University Park, is now dean of the college of education.

University of Texas, Austin: Henry J. Otto has been named chairman of the educational administration department, college of education, succeeding Robert L. Mills, now president of Georgetown College, Ky.

Teachers College, Columbia University, New York: Paul R. Mort, Richard March Hoe Professor of Education and founder and general secretary of the Metropolitan School Study Council, retired in July. His successor as Hoe Professor is Willard S. Elsbree, head of the department of educational administration.

New Mexico State University, University Park: Donald C. Roush, formerly field services secretary, New Mexico Education Association, has been named first full-time dean of the college of teacher education.

University of Miami, Coral Gables, Fla.: Mildred M. Landis, visiting lecturer, department of education, Brooklyn College, has been appointed professor of education.

Southwestern University, Georgetown, Tex.: Thomas P. Jones, formerly principal at Jacksonville, Tex., is now associate professor of education.

Indiana University, Bloomington:
Harold G. Shane, formerly professor of education at Northwestern
University, has been named dean
of the school of education, succeeding Wendell W. Wright, retired.

Texas College of Arts and Industries, Kingsville: C. E. Burnett, superintendent at Harlingen, Tex., has been named associate professor of educational administration.

Mississippi Southern College, Hattiesburg: Ralph S. Owings, formerly chairman of the department of educational administration, is now dean of the school of education and psychology, succeeding Roy G. Bigelow, retired.

Coe College, Cedar Rapids, Iowa: Howard W. Hightower, formerly of the college of education, Butler University, Indianapolis, Ind., is now chairman of the department of

teacher education.

University of Michigan, Ann Arbor: Raymond J. Young, formerly associate professor at the University of Illinois, has been named associate professor of higher education, replacing visiting professor Jesse P. Bogue.

University of Illinois, Urbana: W. H. Cowley, David Jacks Professor of Higher Education at Stanford University, has been appointed George A. Miller Professor of Edu-

cation.

OTHER CHANGES AND APPOINTMENTS:

Max R. Brunstetter, formerly managing editor of the Bureau of Publications at Teachers College, Columbia University, has been named provost of the College, succeeding Paul G. Bulger, resigned.

Howard Matthews, formerly assistant commissioner of education, Juneau, Alaska, is now commissioner, succeeding Don M. Dafoe,

resigned.

William A. Early, formerly superintendent at Savannah, Ga., has been appointed director of curriculum development for Montgomery County, Md., schools.

James W. Reynolds, University of Texas, has been elected president of the Association for Higher Education, succeeding Russell M. Cooper, University of Minnesota.

T. Stanley Warburton, formerly high-school superintendent, Fuller-

ton, Calif., is now head of junior college and adult education for Los Angeles City School System, Calif.

Fred N. Hechinger, associate publisher of the Sunday Herald, Bridgeport. Conn., and education editor of Parents' Magazine, has been named education editor of The New York Times, replacing Loren B. Pope, now assistant to the chancellor of Michigan State University branch at Oakland.

Alberta L. Meyer has been appointed executive secretary of the Association for Childhood Education International, succeeding Frances Hamilton, who resigned to become program specialist with the Division of International Education, U. S. Office of Education.

George Bogdan Kistiakowsky, Harvard University, has been appointed special assistant to President Eisenhower for science and technology. He replaces James R. Killian, Jr., who resigned to return to Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Benjamin C. Willis, superintendend at Chicago, Ill., has been electchairman of the Educational Policies Commission, succeeding Virgil M. Hancher, president of the State University of Iowa, Iowa City. Vice-chairman is John Fischer, new dean of Teachers College, Columbia University.

Walter S. Bell, director of audiovisual education, Atlanta, Ga., has been elected president of the NEA Department of Audio-Visual Instruction for the current year.

New appointments recently announced by the U.S. Office of Education include: Homer Daniels Babbidge, Jr., named assistant commissioner and director of the Division of Higher Education, succeeding Lloyd E. Blauch, retired; and Donald F. Kline, formerly executive secretary of the Nebraska State Education Association, who

was named special assistant to Lawrence G. Derthick, U. S. Commissioner of Education. Dr. Kline succeeds Charles M. Holloway, who resigned to become director of information service, College Entrance Examination Board, New York.

James W. Harrison, assistant director in charge of research for the Service. Education Continuing Michigan State University, East Lansing, has been appointed dean of Utica College, Syracuse University, N. Y.

RECENT DEATHS:

B. L. Dodds, dean of the college of education, University of Illinois, Urbana, at the age of 56.

William A. Yeager, professor emeritus of education, University of Pittsburgh, at the age of 69.

Ernest A. Johnson, president of Lake Forest College, Ill., at the age of 64.

A. Smith Pond, dean of the graduate school, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah.

No Immunity

In a decision which has been declared one of "the most important cases decided during this decade or even quarter century," the Illinois supreme court recently overthrew the doctrine of government immunity as applied to school districts in actions for damages for tort.

The Illinois court ruled that "school districts are liable in tort for the negligence of their agents and employes and all prior decisions to the contrary are hereby overruled." This is said to be the first time that the highest court of any state has taken such summary

The court ruled that 18 pupils action.

who were injured in a school bus accident in 1958 in the Kaneville school district can sue the district for damages. The district faces suits totaling \$2.5 million now.

The board of education has asked for a rehearing of the decision.

Desegregation Progress

A TOTAL of 779 school districts in 17 southern and border states will be desegregated by this fall, if all announced plans are carried out, according to Southern School Vews.

Forty-five new districts have announced plans for desegregation, and extension of desegregation programs are planned in 12 others. The new districts include 39 school districts in Delaware which came under the statewide grade-a-year desegregation plan formulated by the state board of education and recently approved by the federal district court. However, it is not anticipated that Negroes will apply at white schools in all the districts in this state.

Plans for desegregation for the first time have been announced in Dade County, Fla.; Craven County, N. C.; Alluwe, Okla.; and Char-In Oklahoma, lottesville, Va. school authorities have disclosed that the Ardmore district has been desegregated in principle for some time. And in Little Rock, Ark., the newly-constituted school board in August reopened the high schools there, closed last year to avoid integration.

Junior-High Study

AMES B. CONANT has announced plans for a study of the juniorhigh school as an extension of his two-year study of the American public high school.

Dr. Conant recently received a grant of \$85,000 from the Carnegie Corporation of New York to make possible an additional year's work.

Attention will be directed by Dr. Conant and his staff during the year to: the work of the juniorhigh school, examining various procedures now in effect in grades 7 and 8; the instruction of science throughout the 12 grades; the problem of the slow reader; and some of the special problems to be found in the large cities.

WCOTP Meets in Washington

REPRESENTATIVES of teachers organizations in 74 countries met in Washington July 31 to August 7 for the annual meeting of the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession with the NEA as host organization. The conference theme was "Teaching Mutual Appreciation of Eastern and Western Cultural Values" with plenary sessions conducted in four languages using the simultaneous translation technique.

The conference took to task the Japanese system of merit rating, the situation surrounding refugee teachers from East Germany, and racial discrimination in education, particularly in the Union of South Africa. In addition, the organiza-

tion called for the production of history texts free from national bias and encouraged student and teacher international exchange as well as correspondence between students of various nations.

New members of the executive committee are Ricardo Castro of the Philippines and Denis Forestier of France. Member organizations increased from 97 to 108 during the past year, according to Sir Ronald Gould of England, president. Following the meetings an international workshop for editors of educational publications was held by the WCOTP Committee on Educational Journalism in cooperation with the Educational Press Association of America.

Dates of the Coming Months: Oct. 1-7, National Conference on School Transportation, Washington,

Oct. 23-28, NEA Department of Rural Education and County and Rural Area Superintendents, Seat-

Nov. 3-5, National Association of Public School Adult Educators, Buffalo, N. Y.

Nov. 8-14, American Education Week.

Nov. 25-28, National Council for the Social Studies, Kansas City-

Nov. 29-Dec. 2, National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 11-13, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 13-17, American Association of School Administrators, Atlantic City, N. J.

Feb. 27-Mar. 2, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Portland, Ore.

It HAS Happened Here. Virgil T. Blossom, New York: Harper & Brothers, 1959. Pp. xii \pm 209, 82.95.

The former superintendent of schools in Little Rock, Arkansas, here presents a careful, over-all exthe events amination of brought about such a violent change in the climate of opinion in his town-from being voted Man of the Year in 1955 in recognition for his plan for gradual integration in the schools to being reviled (he was even shot at) in 1957.

Mr. Blossom states that the basic reasons for success of the segregationists - however temporary - in Little Rock can be found in the vacillation of political leaders at state and federal levels (all tried to avoid responsibility for enforcement) and in a deliberate plot by segregationists all over the South to force a finish fight in Little Rock in an effort to delay or prevent a showdown on their own home grounds.

But Mr. Blossom is not pessimistic about the future. He suggests ways in which the federal government can offer vigorous leadership for enforcement through civil rather than military processes. He realizes, he states, that school integration in the South will not be easy

nor rapid.

"The people of the South," he says, "must come to realize that with desegregation the law of the land, every school district will be better off if it complies intelligently by planning its own program instead of delaying until the federal government steps in to enforce school integration. There cannot be any single, standardized program for all . . . However it may be done, I am confident that local planning in line with local condi-

tions will be essential to preserve standards of education, to protect the rights of the community and the state, and to maintain the dignity of Americans."

Other Schools and Ours. Edmund J. King. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1958. Pp. xiv + 234, \$3.00.

This book, written by a member of King's College, University of London, is intended to give the reader an introduction to cultural assumptions in six countries. The countries covered are Denmark, France, Great Britain, the U.S., the Soviet Union, and India. The author discusses present educational practices in these countries, tells how they developed, and presents some of the educational problems current in each country.

Dr. Jones, who since 1936 has taught at Harvard University, has been chairman of the American Council of Learned Societies since

1955.

Educational Administration; Concepts, Practices, and Issues. Edgar L. Morphet, Roe L. Johns, and Theodore L. Reller. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. Pp. x + 556. \$5.95.

This new treatment of the practical problems of educational leadership shows how to identify the problems of the educational program, how to work with these problems, and how to resolve them.

The authors also show the close relationship of educational administration to social psychology, anthropology, political science, eco-

nomics, and biology.

The book is divided into three parts. Basic principles and emerging concepts are discussed first, followed by the organization for education, and ending with the administration of all major aspects of the program, including finance.

What Boys and Girls Like to Read. George E. Norvell. Morristown, N. J.: Silver Burdett Company, 1959. Pp. xi + 306. \$4.75.

Questions on the reading likes and dislikes of boys and girls in grades three through six are answered in this book. The answers are based on a study of more than 4,000,000 expressions of opinion from 124,000 children. Some of the information may surprise educators but the author backs up his statements with the evidence of his investigation.

Since this book shows what specific selections (poetry as well as prose) are most likely to stimulate a liking and enthusiasm for reading and what ones should be avoided, this book should be of interest not only to elementary-school teachers but also to their administrators, and librarians and parents as well.

Chapters are included on the influence of age and sex on reading preferences, and the reading interests of bright children.

The Teacher and School Administration. Jefferson N. Eastmond. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1959. Pp. x + 522. \$6.50.

Probably the most important aspect of this book for both teachers and administrators is its theme of professional unity and widespread participation in school administration.

The book considers such subjects as American education and its pro-

fessional organizations, the legal structure and organization American education, persistent problems in school administration, preservice considerations for teachers, and inservice concerns teachers.

The author, a member of the faculty at Bringham Young University, calls for closer relationship between the teacher and administrator and for the acceptance of a mutuality of responsibility.

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED: ELEMENTARY

Anthology of Children's Literature. (Third Edition.) Edna Johnson, Evelyn R. Sickels, and Frances C. Sayers. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1959. Pp. xxxv + 1239, \$7.50.

The Modern Elementary School; Curriculum and Methods. Wilbur H. Dutton and John A. Hockett. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1959. Pp. xii + 530. \$5.50. Covers organization of the elementary school, teaching elementaryschool subjects, and guiding individual progress.

Early Elementary Education. Myrtle Imhoff. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959. Pp. vii + 371. \$5.00.

Industrial Arts for Grades K-6. Carl Gerbracht and Robert J. Babcock. Milwaukee, Wis.: Bruce Publishing Company, 1959. Pp. vii + 160, \$3.50,

Listening Aids through Grades; One Hundred Ninety Listening Activities. David H. Russell Elizabeth F. Russell. New York: Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959. Pp. vii + 112. \$1.50.

The New We Three, The New What Next? and The New Tall Tales. Marion Monroe, A. Sterl Artley, and William S. Gray. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company,

Announcing:

"Basic Approaches to Mental Health in the Schools" Contains 8 articles which originally appeared in the Person-NEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, plus a foreword by the Director of the National Institute of Mental Health, R. H. Felix, who writes:

. . . "I am particularly pleased to contribute the foreword to this impressive collection of articles on mental health in education. The programs described are a sampling of the creative work being done in this field and represent a timely contribution to a rapidly expanding area of mental health practice." In addition to introductory and summary articles by Joseph Samler, Editor of the Personnel and Guidance Journal, the 68-page publication contains articles by Bernard Peck and

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1959. Pp. 112, 95, and 96. \$1.56, \$1.44, and \$1.44. New books in the 'Reading for Independence' series for first, second, and third graders.

SECONDARY

Science You Can Use. George K. Stone and Lucy W. Stephenson, Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. Pp. 383. \$4.40.

The Teaching of High School English. (Second Edition.) J. N. Hook. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1959. Pp. vii + \$5.50.

Alexander's Horses. Alfred Powers. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1959. Pp. 213. \$3.50. A story of Alexander's seven horses that carried the king as he conquered the world.

Secondary School Teaching Methods. Leonard H. Clark and Irving S. Starr. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1959. Pp. xii + 340. \$5.00.

COLLEGE

Preparing Students for College. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1959. Pp. 83. \$1.50.

How to Get into College. Frank H. Bowles. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1959. Pp. viii + 157. \$1.10, paperbound.

GUIDANCE

Guidance in Today's Schools. Donald G. Mortensen and Allen M. Schmuller. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959. Pp. viii + 436.

How to Get a Job with a Future. \$5.75. A 16-page booklet available from Young Presidents' Organization, Inc., 375 Park Ave., New York 22,

Complete Guide to U. S. Civil N. Y.

Service Jobs. David Turner. New York: Arco Publishing Company, Inc., 1959. Pp. 123. \$1.50. Includes latest salary increases authorized

by Congress.

Future Jobs for High School Girls, Miriam Keeler, Washington, D.C.: U. S. Department of Labor. 1959, Pp. 64. Available from U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. \$.40.

AUDIO-VISUALS

People and Pets. A 54-frame filmstrip with a recorded 21-minute narration, designed for children between seven and 14 years old. Available from The Humane Society of the U.S., 1111 E St., N. W., Washington, D. C. \$1.00 handling charge.

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Alexandria, Va.

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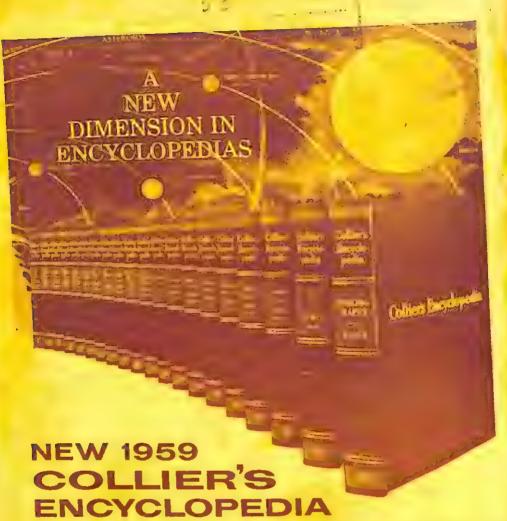
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25th Anniversary Year

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

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Volume XXV

OCTOBER 1959

Number 2

Dramatic Developments in the Future

Education in Orbit

LINDLEY J. STILES

In The Nation's Schools

MPLIED in this title—"Education in Orbit"—is the forboding thought that the future may find education, as at present, going in circles. On the other hand, if we are sufficiently creative and courageous educationally as we are now mechanically, education may be raised to its proper orbit of excellence required by the space age.

One conclusion is inescapable: The status quo of education, good as it has been, is already outmoded for the present and will be as obsolete for the future as the propelled airplane is for space travel. To place education in orbit, educational leaders must prepare for dramatic developments in school programs comparable to those in the fields of fission and satellite projection.

A look in the direction of the future reveals the nature of some changes that are imminent in education. Foremost, perhaps, are the

Lindley J. Stiles is Dean of the School of Education at the University of Wisconsin, Madison. Reported from The Nation's Schools, LXIII (June 1959), 49-54.

significant trends that appear in the way of instructional procedures and the use of various aids and devices to extend superior teaching to more students.

The future orbit of education demands excellence in teaching. This requirement may be expected to challenge all teachers. It will loom as a threat to many, particularly those who have taken their mission casually and who may still be using nineteenth century instructional procedures. In recent years, of course, thousands of high-school and college teachers have improved their presentations by the use of audio-visual aids. Yet in the typical lecture section, the profes-

sor still stands before his students presenting without interruption his views, explanations, or interpretations, in a predetermined order and pace. And in the elementary schools, far too many teachers rely almost totally on traditional teaching procedures, ignoring the wide variety of films, slides, recordings, charts, maps, and other resources that might enliven and strengthen their pedagogy. The use of the master teacher made possible by the vehicle of television will not, of course, detract from the importance of the role of the teacher in the classroom. Rather, it becomes an added resource to assist teachers to improve the quality of the learning experiences.

Television instruction has the advantage of being able to bring students, wherever they are—in grade schools, in large or small colleges, on campus, or at home—the best teaching in the world. Because the television teacher can have help from a team of researchers in his field, a presentation can be made each year that is abreast of up-to-date content, taught in an interesting and stimulating manner.

TV offers the added advantage of the pictorial and diagrammatic analyses to explain the abstract, the intricate, the microscopic. With "flashbacks" and "you were there" techniques, TV instruction can make the student a part of the life of the tenth century or the colonial period, then take him into a meeting of the United Nations within a matter of seconds. It can whisk him

into a scientific laboratory to view the delicate instruments which record the flight of a rocket, then take him aloft to observe the arc of the blast-off.

TEACHING ON TRIAL

Obviously, the availability of television teachings makes inexcusable a class period spent with an immature, unskilled, and uninspiring teacher. ETV places teaching everywhere on trial to prove that it has a role to play that cannot be done better for more students and less expensively via television. Educational television represents a break-through in the improvement of the quality of instruction that can be made available to learners. It builds, on the solid foundation already laid by the A-V developments of the last 30 years, a multidimensional approach to the presentation aspects of teaching: sound, picture, action, distance, repetition, time.

How may A-V aids and automation be used to a maximum to extend universal education, improve quality, and keep it all within the range of financial resources? Many possibilities can be visualized as we look for the orbit of education in the future. One change, surely, when ETV comes into common use, will be the development of instructional teams to facilitate the maximum utilization of the talents of school personnel. At the national such instructional teams would produce lessons for selected school and college courses. Such

teams might include: (1) the television teacher, the best in the world, who might command a salary comparable to the income of syndicated columnists or the Hollywood actor; (2) subject-matter specialists and curriculum experts; (3) audio-visual and television technicians; and (4) the course director.

Such teams might be located in various centers of learning in accordance with the resources and research available, or possibly a Hollywood-type of education will be developed where all courses will be telefilmed. Use of such telefilms would, of course, be optional with local schools, which would be free to supplement the instruction with their own resources and emphasis.

At the institutional level, the instructional team to supplement the national TV course would vary with the number of students enrolled. The jobs to be done might suggest the following personnel as needed: (1) Teacher-Consultantcompetent and experienced teacher to consult with students individually and hold group-help sessions, supervise the preparation of examinations, and be responsible for the course. Salaries could exceed those now paid to professors and teachers in the highest brackets. (2) Correspondence-Consultant-an individual to supervise the enrollees who take the course by television - correspondence. Salary comparable to the teacher-consultant. (3) Teacher-Interns-prospec-

for teaching. They would assist with help sessions, tutor individual students, administer and grade papers and examinations, including those from correspondence courses. (4) Teacher-Secretary—a semiprofessional person who would keep the records, arrange for the use of teletapes for student review, take charge of details.

OTHER IDEAS

Such changes in instructional and educational practices seem visionary only if one's eyes are not directed toward the future. Were we to join with Maurice B. Mitchell, president of Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., in dreaming about the impact of the magic developments in the fields of communications on education, even such practices would appear already out of date.

Mr. Mitchell visualizes in each home a "communicenter" which could utilize the full potentialities of two-way high-speed television, remote control, automation, magnetic tape, facsimile printers, and electronic brains to place members of the family in immediate touch, by sound, picture, and printed word, with any phase of community life.

When such developments become a reality, a press of a button could bring to the child at home complete instruction in his school work. Electronic brains could instruct, answer questions, administer and score examinations while

high-speed two-way TV cameras attached to other machines could bring the teacher into the home to observe and supervise the student at study. A touch of another button could make available in a central library a microfilmed copy of all books, transcriptions of recordings and telefilms. A turn of a dial could bring a lecture or a two-way visualized discussion with teacher or someone in the community who might help with a technical point. A wrist-watch-sized gadget could carry drill exercises with the student when he was out to play.

The basic scientific discoveries that will make possible such radical changes have already been made. If we can control a satellite on its journey around the moon, send it messages, and receive its detailed reports on conditions beyond the atmosphere of the earth, certainly the same electronic powers can be employed to help set our program of education in orbit.

This type of dreaming about the future orbit of education compels us to reflect on the implications such developments hold for the traditional requirements of education. If the home is again to become a place for systematic learning, what kind of school buildings and equipment will be needed? What will happen to the length of the learning day, week, and year? Will not adult education become more extensive and important than ever before? Will not more careful decisions have to be made about

the basic subjects and skills that students must master? What implications do such developments hold for teacher education? Will not the roles of the various members of the instructional teams need to be carefully defined?

Americans are challenged today to apply their brain power, research competence, and creative genius to strengthen education. In terms of national security and freedom, as well as continued progress on all fronts, we have no time to lose. The goal can be achieved only if we are willing to face difficult educational questions, to admit existing weaknesses, to apply new ideas and different formulas in efforts to find the bedrock of curricular content for maximum intellectual development and to design more efficient educational procedures and patterns.

The path of the future orbit of education is already beginning to be reflected in the experimental efforts of schools and colleges which dare to challenge the old and try the new. Furthermore, the markers of the course that schools must take are crystal clear. They are: universal education and excellence, with economy. Our need is for ideas, for new educational theories, and expanded basic and applied research and experimentation to reveal the truth that will guide our schools into orbit. The educational countdown for the future of our schools has started. It demands the total efforts and complete attention of all if the blast-off is to be successful. •

Is Public Opinion More Powerful than the Law?

Informal Controls on Public Education

In Educational Administration in a Changing Community

IKE all social institutions, the public school is operated and altered by controls in the society of which it is a part. Many of these controls have taken on a highly structured and formal character and are strongly entrenched in law. Others are less structured, more informal, and often somewhat transitory. They are recognized largely through expressions of public opinion and community attitude.

It is unnecessary to say, at a given moment, whether the formal or informal controls are the more important and powerful. They interact, one on the other. Laws under which schools operate were enacted with the sanction of public opinion, and they remain operative only when supported by consensus of the community. Indeed, at times, public opinion, expressed through various community groups, may be more powerful in the oper-

Reported from Educational Administration in a Changing Community, 37th Yearbook, 1959, of the American Association of School Administrators, Chapter IV, 69-94.

ation of the school than the law it-

It is the law which specifies how public schools are to be organized, administered, and financed. But they only set the framework within which action is required or permitted. The direct controls of law do not necessarily assure a well-administered school, good class-room instruction, or an over-all program which fills community needs.

Within the framework of the formal controls of law, the controls that really determine quality are the informal ones that develop from community attitudes and public opinion. It is these informal controls, with their variable human elements rather than the fixed legal controls, which determine in a large measure the climate, operation, and effectiveness of the public school.

Public opinion customarily has small beginnings. Public-opinion decisions leading to school progress may begin with the faint beatings of the public pulse in one of the most informal groups of the community. Likewise, opinion that may unseat a school board, discharge a superintendent, block a bond issue,

or alter a curriculum may have its beginning in one of the many small conversational gatherings that are common in all communities. With scarcely enough size or definiteness to merit the label of social structures, the amoebic clusters have vague forms, no expressed social purposes, no recognized responsibility, and no accountability. They are essentially conversation clusters which thrive on hearsay, gossip, and post-mortems on community affairs, including schools. Small though the clusters are, their potential for good or evil in terms of public-school programs and administration is large.

AMOEBIC SOCIAL CLUSTERS

The amoebic cluster is identified readily in the back-fence visit in the neighborhood, the 10 o'clock gatherings at the corner drugstore, the 3 o'clock coffee break at a friendly restaurant, and the beer pause at the tavern. In fact, when a handful of acquaintances gather, the climate is right for thought exchange and reaction which may grow and become public opinion and exercise a profound informal control over the school.

The degree to which amoebic social clusters exert influence varies from community to community. Probably the smaller the community, the more significant they are and the more attention they receive from the superintendent of schools. Everybody soon learns what has happened, or is reported to have happened, in a small town.

There is more anonymity in the city. Nevertheless, no city is so large that it is free of the effects of the amoebic cluster.

School superintendents have various ways of relating to these social clusters in their communities. Some make it a point to become regular members of some of the gatherings. Some superintendents choose to be hail-fellows-well-met and exchange ribald stories with the best of them. These superintendents make it a point to be at the scene to pick up the first whisper of hope or despair for the school administration.

A number of administrators, perhaps imbued with "the new" in public relations, may be more creative. They go out to seek nuclei with the aim of nourishing the clusters so they may become effective in forming enlightened public opinion. Still other superintendents, with professional dignity, retire to the cloister of their offices and give attention to the pressing duties of the hour. They apparently choose to meet public opinion when it becomes more recognizable, mature, and demanding, as it does when it moves up the scale from the clusters to the more accepted and responsible social groups of the community.

Of the many organized community groups which exert informal controls on the schools, the most easily recognized are those whose pronounced objectives are education. Topping the list is the National Congress of Parents and

School administrators Teachers. generally see in this organization the first line of community support for the school. They have come to welcome the PTA for its genuine interest in securing the best schools for children. The organization gives the administrator his most attentive ear as he explains the school program or the necessity for increased budget, more school construction, higher standards for teachers, and changes in the school curriculum. The potential power of the Congress of Parents and Teachers, with its large membership and its program to shape public opinion and attitudes, is enormous.

With spectacular development in the last decade, citizens advisory committees have appeared throughout the nation. These committees have been given assistance by the National Citizens Council for Better Schools. A local citizens advisory committee, as the title suggests, is generally organized with at least school-board and administrative acquiescence. Customarily, the board of education or the superintendent of schools takes the initiative in the first steps of organization. It is the composition of this committee, the degree to which it represents various segments of the community, and its size and leadership that are highly important. Further, the planned life of the committee and its program for surveys, studies, and reports determine in large measure its potential for success.

Professional organization and vo-

cational groups of a community are also influential. Such groups have educational interests they wish to promote. Physicians and dentists have suggestions on health programs, practices, and instruction in the school. The farmers, through their federation, union, and grange, seek to influence the school in many ways. Bankers promote school savings programs and the capitalistic system. Labor unions have their say in vocational education, citizenship, and labor relations. These and similar groups influence the schools for better or worse.

Churches of a community have an educational program for children and youth in the Sunday School. They also influence character education and instruction in moral and spiritual values in the public schools. The ministerial association may offer its criticisms or its suggestions regarding the school to the community or to the board of education.

PATRIOTIC ORGANIZATIONS

And every community has its patriotic organizations which wish for a love of country to be instilled in every child and would have their concepts of historical values taught in the schools. Chambers of Commerce, associations of manufacturers, retailers, realtors, and tax groups have their special school programs, too. They can present school reports and proposals with skill and extensive promotion. Sometimes their specific proposals are concerned with simplified

school offerings, retrenchment, and taxation that will fall lightly on business and industry. Their programs have strength not because they have the support of the many but because they carry the support of influential citizens in the business strata.

There are notable exceptions where enlightened local leaders, in an effort to build an improved community, recruit the active support of the local Chamber of Commerce for school progress. Some business groups have identified the investment potential of schools for the individual and the community, in which case a friendly association between business groups can mean advancement in education. Also, several of the civic organizations known as "service clubs" have school committees which customarily offer optimistic, positive school backing.

MASS MEDIA

The wide channels of community communication are its newspapers, radio, and television. But a journalist's concept of news, as well as his slanting of the story, may distort values. Mass media, whether press, radio, or television, can almost literally make or break a school system. Editors' cognizance of this power usually induces a sense of responsibility. And with improvements in school public relations have come better press relations. The reporter becomes essentially a member of the team and has rapport with the board of education, administration, teachers, and children

Each of the communications media has its special field and advantage in school reporting. The newest medium, TV, opens a priceless avenue in school public relations that is only slightly developed in many communities. Well planned and skillfully executed television programs can assure a better understanding and reception of the school program by the community.

Public opinion exercises informal controls on the school that are too numerous for listing and almost too numerous for understanding. Divergent points of view and conflicting interests arise from community living, but somehow they merge and develop community attitudes. These are by nature nebulous and in a state of flux. This is well, for out of aroused interest and participation of the citizens come public schools which better meet the needs of all the children of all the people.

The formal controls of the law and the informal controls of community attitude are perpetually demanding as the superintendent of schools undertakes his important daily work. These controls have their inconsistencies. They pull in one direction and push in another. The superintendent of schools taxes his understanding, skill, professional preparation, and experience as he seeks to translate the wishes of the community into successful school administration

Selecting a Successful Teacher

FRANKLYN S. BARRY

In The School Executive

AS public pressure calls for an increased accent on quality in education, the role of the good teacher takes on new dimensions. The solution to the problem of securing a high level of education lies, for the most part, in the selection of able teachers. Fine buildings and capable administrators are important parts of the school program, but the source of superior education for America is to be found in the teacher. In the words of the Rockefeller Report, "No educational system can be better than its teachers."

What are the qualities essential to teacher competence? There are several fundamental prerequisites. A high degree of intelligence and a capacity for vigorous action are two which are probably inherent. A third basic quality, social consciousness, is the result of a complex of forces, including home, books, schooling, community, economic factors, and travel. Two other factors are expert knowledge of subject and professional fields and a

capacity to get along with peoplechildren and adults.

Superior intelligence in teachers is significant when one considers what the teacher is expected to accomplish. In addition to the teaching of subject matter, there are less tangible but equally important tasks requiring such components of intelligence as creative and relational thinking, and imagination. Much is heard about vanishing individualism and the growing cult of conformity. The less talented teacher is too often content to keep young minds plodding along paths geared to the average. The gifted teacher is usually a richly living, broadly informed person who will expose his students to intriguing new worlds.

The teacher with superior intelligence is quicker to recognize individual needs and capacities of students and to seize teaching opportunities as they arise. There may be but one "educable moment" in a given situation; if this moment is passed by, it may never come again.

Second to intelligence as a requirement for teaching is a capacity for sustained, vigorous action. Zeal, fervor, and intense interest in both subject matter and human beings are communicable from teacher to student. The zestful teacher brings to the teaching situation a

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sense of urgency and importance as well as a climate of action, Motivation is necessary for learning; the lively teacher, by his very example, insures an atmosphere of learning.

He works hard outside the classroom. He reads widely, studies in
his own field, prepares units of
work as well as daily lesson
plans, plans presentations, assembles films, charts, and other supplementary classroom aids. He prepares examinations and corrects
them, counsels students, and does
clerical work. Extracurricular and
community activities take much of
his time and energy. All this requires good health and physical
vigor coupled with the capacity for
sustained action.

To a superior intellect and capacity to achieve must be added a third major quality, namely, social intelligence and a form of moral conscience. To fulfill the true role of American education in a shrinking world, the teacher must have a strong passion to understand and help its people. He must pass on to his students his desire to resolve the largest issues; he must be a champion of an education which will include the knowledge of what is needed and the desire to serve. He will demonstrate his faith in selfgovernment, his recognition of the role of an enlightened citizenry, and his willingness to contribute to the institutions dedicated to the improvement of society. The personal traits of this teacher will include tolerance and respect for the dignity of all mankind. Awareness of the problems of poverty, segregation, labor relations, minorities, and related areas which might promote or block the welfare of groups marks the person possessing this quality. It is the task of the teacher with social conscience to transmit to his students an awareness of the problems involved in living with other groups—one aspect of responsible citizenship.

Depth of training in subject matter is certainly an important requirement for teaching in the rapidly changing world of today. Unless the teacher is well grounded in his subject matter, and has also kept his knowledge up to date, he cannot demand from his students the degree of achievement that is imperative.

SKILL IN TRANSMISSION

But depth and breadth of study may be wasted or at least ineffective if the teacher is not skilled in transmission of this knowledge to the child in the classroom. This process is highly complicated. In a 13year period, the teacher is expected to develop each pupil to the maximum of his potential and to make aware of his particular strengths and limitations. The aim of education is to make a functional being of each person who comes to school in order that he can compete successfully in a social and work world in later life.

The teaching skill to do all this must not be left to chance. Motivation of pupils may be achieved

by a variety of means and devices, but this requires know-how. The role of tests and testing in the learning process is vital, and the preparation and use of tests is a skill in itself. Training is required to detect the various levels of reading ability in any one group, and to adapt the teaching process to these abilities. Surely a teacher with knowledge of the learning process can be a more effective teacher than one with no knowledge of psychology.

QUALITY IS THE ISSUE

Indeed, there is no real question of the *need* for professional training. The *quality* of the teachertraining program is the issue. When institutions which prepare teachers will insist on rigorous and disciplined study in the professional phases of the teacher's training, there will be much less to criticize. Briefly, it must be subject matter training of depth *and* professional training of depth.

Certain personality traits are also needed to make even well-trained teachers effective. In general, these traits are best identified as an ability to get along with others and the possession of skills in human relationships. This would give rise to the growth of good classroom morale, an important factor in the whole teaching-learning situation. And if high morale is important to the learner, it is equally important to teacher. The teacher with an understanding of the factors contributing to staff morale

will be a positive force in staff growth. He will look on his fellow teachers as able members of a team working with him toward common objectives. The esteem in which teachers hold their administrators is associated with the level of morale. Good teachers will become involved in certain areas of school management; these teachers will view professionally the role of administration and work with the administrator in all areas of common concern.

The superior teacher with an ability to work with others also contributes to better relations between parents and school, and between the school and the community. This teacher will see himself as an agent of better communications interpreting the purposes of education to the public, and securing reliable information in return on public attitudes toward the school.

qualifications represent the ideal. It is a sad fact that today it cannot be achieved-often the mere willingness to teach must be sufficient for employment. The Educational Policies Commission emphasizes that if American schools are ever to be fully staffed with teachers who meet the best standards, the teaching profession must be strengthened; salaries, perquisites, and prestige must reach levels which will permit the schools to compete for excellence. The entire American society has a stake in creating the conditions under which this problem solved.

How to Change Liabilities to Assets

Teaching the Upper 15 Percent

CHARLES E. BISH

In The Clearing House

N school-or out of schoolgood minds must be challenged or they will rust. Today this is the focus of our concern. Conferences, projects, studies, research-all point toward closing the gap in the continuum of educational challenge and opportunity. Through these measures, attempts are being made to provide specially designed programs to enable the academically talented pupil to reach his maximum development under and within the aegis of the public school.

Unfortunately, research and program development take Meanwhile too little is being done. What can be done until systematic programs can be developed? This is the question that every teacher faces as he stands before the pupils assigned to his room. He will surely ask himself what he can do-on his own-for the talented pupils in his

Since we have obligated ourselves to "meet the needs of the pupils," let us examine what have been referred to as "liabilities" and the "special needs" of these talented pupils, as they have been compiled from the many writings on the subject.

1. They learn easily and quickly. Therefore they have free time which they have difficulty in managing.

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- Without the pressure to work, they develop poor study habits, and many do not learn the habit of sustained effort.
- 3. They dislike drill and repetition, even as much of it as they need.
- 4. When they are required to do tasks which they already understand, they often respond by disliking the teacher, the subject, the school, and even react negatively to the whole "formal process of learning."
- 5. They think faster than they can write, and they frequently turn in work of varying degrees of "sloppiness."
- 6. Because of their natural curiosity, alertness, and ability to do relational thinking, they often appear to teachers and classmates to be conceited or overaggressive.
- 7. They may become interested only in perfection, or bog down because goals are beyond present at-
- 8. They come to dislike their superior abilities because they do not

gain appropriate recognition or approval when they use them.

9. They do not understand their potential or capacity, nor do they perceive it in relation to social responsibility.

10. They may find it difficult to be tolerant of others or to be criti-

cal of self.

NEW OBJECTIVES

Cannot these liabilities be turned into assets? Can we not restate them in positive form, and arrive at a new set of objectives-specific, timely, and - admittedly - difficult. We must help the talented student to learn:

 To manage his time so that it furthers his own growth and productivity.

2. To develop good study habits, including that of sustained effort.

3. To understand fully and, hence, accept drill and repetition to the point of acceptable proficiency in the skill involved.

4. To develop the ability to be able to evaluate his own progress in this process, so that he may become selfdirecting and selfapprais-

ing in skill development.

5. To develop a combination technique and standard of work which will enable the handling of characteristic rapid thought processes, but will, as part of the same operation, bring the fruits of this thinking to the polished form they (generally) deserve.

6. To develop an understanding of scholastic ability as one phase of the human being; its relationship to

cultural nurture; and its responsibility to society of its owner regardless of its quantity or quality.

7. To develop an understanding of himself with respect to his ability, his culture, and his social re-

sponsibility.

8. To develop a means of expressing himself so that his natural alertness and curiosity do not antagonize either classmates or teachers.

9. To progress in the setting of realistic but increasingly difficult goals, with respect to (a) his own ability to accomplish them, and (b)their general soundness of purpose as measured by considerations of practicality and general utility.

10. To develop a pattern for relationships with others in which he may seek to understand them, and thus learn respect for their work, their ideas, their culture, and so on.

- 11. To increase in his ability to develop his own program of activities, academic and otherwise, on a worthwhile and balanced basis, thus engendering in him the understanding of the need for scope of study and a knowledge of the "real world"; i.e., study in a number of fields, not just that of his special interest.
- 12. To develop criterions for excellence and an objectivity of viewpoint with respect to himself and his work, which will make it possible for him to examine his motives, actions, and products critically in the light of these criterions, and not be afraid to face the answers he finds.

The accomplishment of these objectives is perhaps to some small extent taking place in all classrooms where good teaching occurs. But it seems fair to assume that any achievement with respect to them has been incidental, not planned for with any real attempt at implementation.

What would such implementation mean to the individual teacher? Here is the crucial point, regardless of what the administration may provide for, suggest, or require, and it will necessitate three things: (1) time and effort to develop ways of teaching for these objectives within each discipline; (2) means of evaluating such learning, so that procedures may be improved; and (3) a thorough study of, and probable revision of, motivation as it operates in today's

We have long talked of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, and still our gifted students have not been motivated. Some 40 percent of them have become so unmotivated as to consider high school an educational terminus, and their ability has in great measure been lost to themselves and to society.

Not all of the disinterest is within the school. There is much of what one authority refers to as "antimotivation" in which those persons to whom the student owes a high amount of allegiance make such statements as "I never was any good at . . " or "I always found . . . boring," and so on. Thus doubts arise as to values and goals, and the

talented student shuns working out their resolution, preferring the security of allegiance.

The same type of antimotivation operates when the student is not adept socially, and suffers the discomfort of being unlike the group. The importance of peer approval has been treated so often that here it need only be mentioned as a factor operating against the teacher's efforts to stimulate the pupil to maximum growth.

But in a study of the objectives set forth here it would appear that certain motivations are inherent within each one-and that with the understandings, tools, and techniques so developed, motivation for other aspects of the student's academic life might be made easier. For example, let us take the gifted student who dislikes "all school" because he is plied daily with materials he already knows, processes he already understands, and techniques he can master immediately. If he sees that there may be hope in developing his ability to express constructively his problems of disappointment and general frustration, as well as further possibility for relief by learning to devise his own programs of work (under direction, of course), and to set goals commensurate with his ability and "present condition of knowledge"then, indeed, he may pursue the paths of learning to the point of optimum development. And thisfor all youth, yes, but for the talented youth certainly-is our goal.

Discipline: Strict or Permissive?

HELEN PUNER

In Parents' Magazine

O you consider "permissive" a dirty word? Does "permissive" mean for you wild Indian kids bucking control-outstanding wilfulness but flunking in perseverance-natural candidates, all, for juvenile delinquency? Do you believe that you have to choose between "permissiveness" and "strictness"-and that your choice is likely to be crucial to how the children will turn out?

Certainly the social scientists who study behavior have come up with persuasive findings that often, unfortunately, seem contradictory. Could it be that the effect of our child-rearing practices are less important than some other, less easily defined influences on our children?

Some light-diffused rather than focused-has been shed on this entire question by one of the country's leading sociologists, Dr. William H. Sewell of the University of Wisconsin. It's entirely possible, Dr. Sewell believes, that the significant and crucial matter is not the practices them-(child-rearing) selves themselves, but the whole personal and social situation in which a child finds himself, with all that situation's ramifications,

reverberations, undertones, overtones. Dr. Sewell believes that American parents are not consistently one-method parents. They may be permissive with feeding or toilet training, for example, or during a particular period of a child's life, but be restrictive with some other aspects of training or in some other period.

Despite this inconsistency of parental practice, Dr. Sewell and his associates have found most of the children in their sample 162 families "well adjusted." From this they conclude: "Certainly, it would seem that the continued and consistent application of favorable or unfavorable practices is not the sole determining factor in good or

poor adjustment."

If it isn't the practices so much, then what is it that's of equal or greater importance in forming the characters and personalities of our children?

"It is people and not methods of child rearing that are significant," suggests Dr. James H. S. Bossard of the University of Pennsylvania, one of the deans of American sociology. And "highly significant" for him is a study of young children -----

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conducted by sociologist Marjorie L. Behrens which strongly indicates that a child's social adjustment is markedly related to its mother's character structure, but hardly at all to the mother's specific childrearing techniques. Indeed, the mothers of 25 badly adjusted preschool children Mrs. Behrens studied did rather well so far as using "acceptable" child-rearing practices. It was in the quality of their relationship with their children that they fell down badly.

Into this quality go such positive elements as affection, warmth, understanding of a child's needs, respect for the "self of the child," and the mother's ability to accommodate herself to her child emotionally. But into it, too, among Behrens' poorly adjusted mothers, went the effect of their unstable character structures, their unrecognized or unresolved emotional conflicts. Such mothers, this study implies, can do everything right "by the book" and still produce poorly adjusted children. For, "it is evident that (a) child is both sensitive and responsive to the unconscious attitudes of the mother as well as her overt conduct."

Also, it's the interplay between a young child and his mother—the way they act, interact and interreact to each other—that matters most. It's a child's total perception of his mother, his total interreaction with her, that influence the quality of his adjustment.

But a child's perception of his mother doesn't depend solely on what his mother is. It also depends on what he is—on his biological and psychological make-up, on his emotional needs, on the way he has of reacting, and the accumulated weight of all his past reactions. The fact that the receiving end of the relationship between a parent and child is as important as the giving end may be one good reason why we see such variety in the personalities and characters of children that are brought up by the same parents.

WHERE DO WE STAND?

Where does this leave us? Where do we stand when the psychologists' and sociologists' reports have died down and the dust of seeming contradiction has settled? Are we perhaps where we've always been when we're in our best minds—able to steer for ourselves through the crossfire of "Be strict!" "Be permissive!" that peppers our parenthood?

I think we are. I think we all recognize, when we're best in tune with ourselves, that it's the people we are as parents, rather than the methods we use, that influence the personalities and characters of our children. If we've lived long enough with open hearts and minds with our children-if we've painstakingly, heartfully built a family-then we've come to know that what we do to and for our children is not the only determinant of their well-being; that who does it in what state of feeling, in what emotional climate is also highly significant; that the family as a whole-its nature, its relationships, its process-is important, too.

Does all this mean that it doesn't make any difference whether a parent is "strict" or "permissive"? I think not. For practices stem from people, and people of thought, goodwill, selfunderstanding, simply sound instinct, tend to use practices that benefit a child's growth. From parents who are people of real warmth, and understanding, who have the ability to see through a child's eyes and the spine to be committed to values they hold dear, stems a mature "permissiveness" that goes along with the grain of the child but doesn't ignore the reality that parents are for guiding,

LEAVE THEM ALONE?

kind of permissiveness doesn't mean "love and leave them alone," doesn't mean blanket sanctioning. It grants permission to a child selectively-things permitted at one stage of his development need not be or won't be at another. What is permitted depends not only on the child's needs and wants but also on how his behavior affects the rest of the family or the part of the world he's impinging on.

harshness, restrictiveness, severity, and punishment don't set the emotional atmosphere, aren't indulged in for their own sake. These parents hold steady. They make clear to a child what they want and expect of him in the way

of behavior-out of the warmth of love, not the trigger-happy heat of constant anger or the ice of steady

punishment.

Of course, to hold steady in lonely strength to one's own beliefs about rearing children is quite a trick in any era. It's not hard to recognize that we're all influenced by our time's prevailing ideas of what's "good," what's "acceptable" -and what's not. But have you ever stopped to consider that our time itself creates those ideas of good and right and acceptable?

A recently published book, The Changing American Parent, makes just this point. Its authors, two University of Michigan professors, say that our present concern with our children's "adjustment," with their ability to make friends, stems not "some immutable natural law" but from the kind of "groupy," teamwork society we live in, where the ability to get along well with others in earning one's livelihood is as important as native ability for the job.

If we can see things in this kind of perspective, it becomes easier in a way to have the courage of the convictions of all good parents in any era-the courage to stand up for what we believe in despite the spirit of our time, and the humility not to demand of a child that he grow up in our own image.

It's the granting of this culminating permission for a child to find and be himself-that makes true permissiveness most emphatically

not a dirty word.

Can the Public School Be Neutral?

An Unreligious View

ROBERT LEKACHMAN

In Religion and the Schools

HE importance of America's schools to the future of democratic society can scarcely be exaggerated. And because the schools attract so much attention and arouse so many hopes and expectations, the number of goals we ask our schools to reach have steadily increased. We not only expect them to provide skills in communication and computation but training in democracy, vocational preparation, and moral and ethical improvement. In a period of growing religious interest and growing religiosity, this last demand has created a new set of problems. It is all too easy to equate moral behavior with religious symbols and religious instruction and to infer from the equation that the symbols and instruction should be part of the public-school program.

This facile sequence is a serious misinterpretation of the problems of agreement between the religious and unreligious. This is no simple

matter. Religious people themselves disagree not only about the elements of their respective faiths, but also about the dissemination of these elements in schools and colleges.

And how can local school boards satisfy the demands of some of their critics and allay the apprehensions of the remainder? What gratifies the Christian parent may strike some Jewish parents as covert antisemitism, and some irreligious parents as pernicious superstition.

Then Congress faces its own difficulties when it tries to win the approval both of Catholics who argue that justice demands appropriate support of parochial as well as of public schools, and of Protestants, Jews, and agnostics who insist on various grounds-constitutional, civic, or educational-that aid may legitimately go only to the public schools. School buses, free lunches, and an array of other fringe benefits have all been occasions of controversy. So confused have been the battle lines that, at times, opponents of public aid to religious schools have found themselves in the rather strange posture

Robert Lekachman, a member of the faculty at Barnard College, Columbia University, New York City, is a consultant to the Fund for the Republic's "study of basic issues underlying a free society." Reported from Religion and the Schools, published by The Fund for the Republic, Inc. (1959), 79-96. of arguing that free bus transportation for parochial students constituted the establishment of a church.

The layman in the law should tread gently or not at all among the conflicting constitutional interpretations of the First Amendment. But it is hard to avoid noting that none of the conflicting groups has stood constitutionally naked in the strife; each has been able to cite favorite Supreme Court utterances, sometimes from the same case.

The heart of the case for the American public school is not only that it makes democracy more workable, but also that it encourages the free formation of many kinds of beliefs and many varieties of commitments. In a society which aspires to rub along in a democratic fashion, it is a good thing for future citizens to learn early and continuously how to get along with each other even when their beliefs importantly differ. A Catholic may believe of his Protestant friends that their path to salvation is infinitely more difficult than his own, but workable democracy depends on his coming to know his mistaken brothers, on his learning to work with them, while critical doctrinal differences are held in suspension. It is desirable for Catholic, Jewish, Protestant, and agnostic children to play and learn with each other. It is particularly important that they do so when the prevailing winds of doctrine emphasize religious affiliation.

Since home and church will stress the differences among chil-

dren, it is appropriate at least, and possibly essential at most, that another influential agency emphasize their similarities. Clearly, this is an argument of degree. It does not imply that all children must go to public schools and none to religious schools or secular private schools. But it is an argument that most children should go to public schools.

Memory tells me that, when I was a child, children who attended parochial school seemed mysterious and disquieting. It was easy to entertain the notion that their lives were very different from mine. Nor do I recall that my reaction was different from that of other publicschool pupils. What is different, children tend to resent and distrust. And not only children. Adult distinctions of principle will be more reasonable and more charitable when childish experiences are shared. Democracy depends on certain kinds of shared experiences and, of these, public education is probably one. Although democracy need not vanish with the collapse of one of these varieties of experience, it will operate less effectively.

NEUTRALITY DOCTRINE

But can the public school really be a neutral agency? Is not the preaching of neutrality itself a view of what is valuable, a doctrine in itself? As a matter of sheer logic, the answer is clearly affirmative. If one says in praise of the public school that it teaches an experimental attitude towards truth, even

that it judges truth to be evolving and changing, unmistakably such precepts imply that there is no fixed body of truth to communicate about the subjects taught in the school at least, and, by extension, perhaps about other subjects as well.

Not all public schools are addicted to these opinions, at least in this form. But suppose that they were. Would this assumption justify saying that since the public schools cannot be truly neutral about life's vital ends, then we should educate our children in schools which represent the truths we hold dear and in the public schools only when what is taught in public schools accords with our conceptions in every detail? I think not. Though formally a doctrine, openness forecloses no answers and prevents no commitments. The pupil will not, of course, hear his parents' religion praised as true, but neither will he hear it ridiculed as

On ultimate matters, the school does not conceive that it must teach or preach. If it helps children label as ultimate only the ultimate, so much the better, for the hardest thing in the world is to avoid acquiring firm beliefs about individuals, doctrines, races, and nationalities before experience and reflection have justified them. Everylife-family, friends, in church, and innate laziness-conspires to abbreviate the child's exploration of the world and to persuade him to adopt with a sigh of

relief the faith of his fathers, not only in religion but also in politics, friendship, and taste. At best, the public school postpones some of these choices until they can become the acts of adults rather than the reflexes of children.

The public school is an ally of social tolerance, class fluidity, and the open mind. Therefore, it is an ally of democracy itself. French democracy is a horrible example of the pass to which an over-identification of too many principles can bring a gifted people. So far, the United States is a quite successful illustration of what reluctance to assume fixed positions of principle can achieve. In the end, democracy depends on the cooperation of people who, at least in theory, find each other's principles intolerable and have only recently got over the habit of fighting over them. Any agency which suggests that tentative approaches to principle in most human affairs are best, that different principles may have some justification, does much to raise the quality of democratic society.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

What are the practical implications of this position? I shall state them flatly: public support of parochial education is inadvisable; the right of churches and other groups to maintain educational institutions which meet the standards of the community is a part of freedom of opinion and freedom of religion; advantages already extended to religious and other private schools, such as tax exemption, should in logic be retrieved, but in practice left undisturbed. Anyone convinced by my case for public education will not wish to promote religious or other private schools. Equally, anyone attached to the constitutional and libertarian values of democracy cannot deny the right of churches to sponsor their own schools.

A healthy democracy encourages the activity of all manner of voluntary groups intermediate between individuals and government. And, although any church may protest being classified with temporal institutions like clubs, societies, and unions which make no supernatural claims, it is hard to see how a democratic society can otherwise classify churches. Finally, social harmony and a decent respect for established practice imply that the issue of tax exemption should not he raised.

Financial aid to parochial schools is one of the unresolved issues between some of the religious and practically all of the unbelieving. It is obviously accurate to refer to only some of the religious because Protestants and Jews seem generally to oppose public aid, whether or not they maintain their own parochial school. Here there is a

real difference of opinion about the meaning of justice and the ends of education. The fact that as a matter of prudence most Catholics do not care to press their demands should not conceal the existence of their deep conviction in the justice of their case and their consequent feeling that the community does not value properly what Catholic education does.

It is clear how I think that this issue should be settled. The public school is too valuable to encourage alternatives to it. Although this is a genuine issue, public debate on it has been confused and, all too frequently, prejudiced. In part, the low quality of the public argument has been the consequence of the of irrelevant controversy which has raged over Christmas plays, créches, displays of the Decalogue, Christmas carols, Hanukkah candles, and the like. Properly perceived, the issue for Catholics and other believers is whether their conception of religion demands that secular education be permeated with a theistic ethic or whether separation between religious and secular instruction is best for both. It is in this framework that debate about public aid to religious schools stands the best prospect of intelligent resolution.

The Religious View

WHEN asked in Sunday School the name of the first man, one boy replied, "George Washington." Then, after a second, "But I suppose you mean Adam, if you count them foreigners."—From Mississippi Educational Advance.

Results of a Nationwide Experiment

National Program in Use of Television in the Public Schools

In Teaching by Television

N Schools for Tomorrow, a report by Alexander J. Stoddard which the Fund for the Advancement of Education published in 1957, the main thesis was that television could be used as a powerful resource for the teaching of very large classes. The report contended that such an arrangement could bring about substantial savings in classroom space and in the teaching positions while at the same time improving the quality of education.

Following the publication of this report, Fund representatives raised with a number of superintendents, particularly in large cities, the question of whether they would be interested in testing these hypotheses. It was out of these conversations that the National Program in the Use of Television in the Public Schools developed. This became a nationwide experiment which, in 1957-58, involved nearly 40,000 students in more than 200 elementary and secondary schools.

Participating in this first year of the National Program were the public-school systems of Atlanta; Cincinnati; Dade County (Miami), Florida; Detroit; Jefferson County, Kentucky; Milwaukee; Norfolk; Oklahoma City; Philadelphia; and Wichita, as well as scores of other Reported from Teaching by Television, a report jointly published by the Ford Foundation and the Fund for the Advancement of Education, New York City (May 1959), 46-59.

school systems in Nebraska, North Carolina, and Oklahoma. In many ways, these school systems were representative of the nation's public schools. They were scattered over a wide geographic area. They ranged all the way from a twoteacher high school in Nebraska, which enrolled only 29 students, to the big schools of Detroit and Philadelphia enrolling several thousand. These schools also enrolled students from a wide variety of socioeconomic and racial backgrounds, possessing a broad range of abilities and interests, and staffed by teachers who differed similarly in their backgrounds and their competency.

The story of the advance planning for this experiment, the problems of physical facilities encountered, the manner in which the classes taught by television were set up and conducted, and the roles of the teachers and their assistants—the ways, in fact, in which the many problems encountered

were met and solved—all are a part of the full report by the Fund for the Advancement of Education. In this short discussion of the experiment we must confine ourselves to some of the results of the experiment as observed by the schools involved.

participating assist the Tα schools systems and the Fund in evaluating the Program, two committees of educators and testing experts were established. The first, known as the Appraisal Committee, was headed by Herold C. Hunt, Eliot Professor of Education at the Harvard Graduate School of Education, and was charged with the responsibility of appraising such things as the quality of instruction, techniques and procedures teaching large classes, the physical arrangements of the large classes, scheduling problems, and so forth. The second committee, known as the Evaluation Committee, was headed by Arthur E. Traxler, executive director of the Educational Records Bureau, and was responsible for advising the participating schools systems in the testing of student achievement and attitudes.

In the first year of the study, there was naturally wide variation among the different school systems in the kind and quality of the tests used and in the statistical treatment of the test results. Some schools matched experimental and control groups pupil for pupil, others matched on the basis of means and standard deviations of experimental and control groups,

and still others took differences between the groups into account through analysis of co-variance (the procedure favored by the Evaluation Committee).

Although the testing and statistical procedures did vary widely, it may be stated that: Despite the newness of television as a medium of instruction, all sorts of technical difficulties, and the makeshift arrangements required to convert auditoriums, cafeterias, large study halls, and portable buildings into classrooms, the test results clearly showed that students who received part of their instruction over television in large classes did as well as-and in many cases significantly better than-students who were taught by conventional methods in small classes.

ENCOURAGING RESULTS

There were many other encouraging results which emerged from this first year's experience. For example:

1. The use of television as a medium of instruction in many instances brought about a rethinking of the curriculum and course objectives.

2. By bringing superior teaching to the attention of a great many classroom teachers, television proved to be a valuable means of improving the in-service training of teachers.

3. Because of the careful planning that went into televised courses, in many cases they proved much better organized than conventional courses, and the television teachers found they could cover much more ground—and in less time—than they could by conventional methods.

- 4. Television brought into the classroom far richer educational experiences than had been possible before. In Philadelphia, for example, the chairman of the U. S. Committee on the International Geophysical Year spoke to several thousand science students on the meaning and the significance of the IGY.
- 5. Since all but one of the projects used open-circuit television, the studio teachers had a much wider audience than the students in the classrooms. They found that other school systems were tuning in on their broadcasts and that parents were watching regularly.
- 6. Much to the surprise of some observers, school librarians reported that the TV students—stimulated by provocative teaching—were making much more extensive use of the library than other students.
- 7. Several school systems reported substantial savings in teaching positions and in classroom space—with no sacrifice of quality. Dade County, for example, saved the equivalent of 27 teaching positions and 29 classrooms. In other cities, the teacher time saved by the use of television in large classes made it possible to provide much more individualized instruction for slow learners and rapid learners.
 - 8. Tardiness and absences fell

off sharply among students in the television classes.

- Except in a few isolated cases, discipline was not a problem in the large classes.
- 10. The techniques of teaching and learning in large-class situations have by no means been thoroughly mastered, but the classroom teachers and students worked hard during the first year to develop and improve them. Classroom teachers experimented with various ways of eliciting student participation, both during and after the televised part of the lesson, and students began to develop the skills of note-taking and of speaking clearly and distinctly in the large classes.

UNSOLVED PROBLEMS

The school systems participating in the National Program—as might be expected—encountered many problems during this first year. Many of these problems had already been encountered in earlier experiments with television teaching. Some were solved fairly quickly. In general, these were the problems that remained unsolved as the program entered its second year in 1958-59:

I. The problem of inadequate facilities. Auditoriums and cafeterias were not designed for use as classrooms, and they were far from ideal when used for the large television classes. Several school systems, on the basis of their experience during the first year, made alterations to these large rooms in

an effort to improve them for classroom use during 1958-59.

- 2. The problem of finding, recruiting, and training studio teachers. Generally speaking, good classroom teachers make good television teachers, but there are special techniques any teacher must master in using television as a medium of instruction.
- 3. The problem of training classroom teachers in the techniques of handling large classes, particularly in the techniques of eliciting student participation. Discipline has not been a problem in the large classes, but student participation in a large class must of necessity take different forms than is customary in a small class. Several imaginative teachers in the large classes have devised new techniques for stimulating student discussion and involvement after the telecast part of the lesson, but much remains to be learned in this respect.
 - 4. Students, too, need to learn the techniques of learning in a large-class situation. Here again, much remains to be learned about the nature of student participation and the various forms it can take.
 - 5. The problem of integrating the telecast part of the lesson and the classroom "follow-up" into a unified, meaningful whole. This involves the whole question of the role of the studio teacher and the role of the classroom teacher as members of a teaching team—a question that needs much fuller exploration.

6. The problem of organizing the

curriculum to take maximum advantage of television as a teaching tool. On the basis of the first year's experience, the participating school systems are convinced that the new medium makes possible a much broader, deeper, and richer curriculum than is possible under conventional methods of instruction. The problem is to develop a curriculum that fully utilizes the potentialities of the new medium.

7. The problem of adapting the new technique of teaching by television to the varying abilities of students. This also is a problem in conventional instruction, but it becomes increasingly important when a television teacher reaches several hundred—or several thousand—students in widely scattered classrooms.

8. The problems of scheduling, with respect to the time of day the lesson is telecast and also with respect to the duration of the telecast and its place in the class period. The latter aspect of the problem has important implications for the problem of integrating the telecast and the classroom "follow-up" into a meaningful whole.

9. Finally, there is the neverending problem of quality. Television is essentially neutral as a conveyor of ideas, concepts, and information. The quality of the output can only be as good as the quality of the input. A mediocre teacher on television communicates her mediocrity to a much wider audience than a mediocre teacher in a classroom.

Russian Lesson for Americans

EDGAR COLLINS BAIN

In National Parent-Teacher

T is strangely difficult to bring oneself to say what is so clearly true—that one of the most important occurrences in the last decade or two of human affairs is the emergence of the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics as a major, if not dominating, influence. I have a vague and painful persuasion that we still feel that if we close our eyes to this fantastic and monstrous nation, it will somehow go away.

Yet today the U.S.S.R. stands as the most formidable competitor of the United States. Our best chance for finding a way of preserving this good life of ours, as we have known it in America for so many decades, may be to understand and cope with that curious and mighty totalitarian state. And one of the facts which should be understood is the unprecedented burgeoning of knowledge and the incentives offered for its attainment in the U.S.S.R.

The present Russian scale of living, although not high, has been growing steadily better. The country's amazing industrial achievements—thus far—have been focused on state projects, power develop-

ment, and military applications. But year by year there are procurable for its citizens a few more necessities and perhaps, by Soviet standards, a luxury or two. It is easy for every young person to see that the items which are pleasant to own lie just outside the realm of the laborer. He is constantly informed that engineers may readily achieve an income of six or seven times the laborer's wage. An elementaryschool teacher receives about three times the salary of the steel-mill laborer, and the income of a professor in the university or institute may be 16 times that of the laborer.

Here, then, are incentives multiplied beyond anything we have seen in our bourgeois capitalistic state. A bright young boy or girl in school scarcely dares not be a brilliant student. If a student fails, he goes to work—wherever he is needed (often in the mines), not where

Edgar Collins Bain is a famous metallurgist. Reported from National Parent-Teacher, LIII (June 1959), 24-25. he would like to work. And to pull, as well as push, the student to erudition, the state pays him to attend college!

Then, having made intellectual achievement materially attractive, the government adds the highest social approval and recognition. For all manner of extraordinary contributions to the "welfare of the people through the state" there are huge prizes. Many of the winners are, in the nature of things, members of the Academy of Science and receive for that reason alone an honorarium of five thousand rubles a month (10 times the income of the lowest paid worker) without specified duties.

Hence we cannot but believe that the student in the U.S.S.R. goes to school in an eager, enthusiastic, and, above all, receptive mood. The environment as well as parental and contemporary attitudes appear to make schoolwork a desirable thing to be permitted to do.

If we accept the fact—as I think we must—that the Soviet Union has put its whole faith for survival and ascendancy in establishing the most effective education possible, we are obliged to study it in relation to our own system. And here we find several areas wherein we can make improvements.

More teachers could be attracted, and might acquire a better preparation for their lifework, if the incentives were greater—salary, yes, but also a proper appreciation and recognition of their critical im-

portance in our way of life. But even then we might not turn out well-educated men and women. Receptivity must be present in each student, or he will not learn. (At times I have wondered whether learning on the part of eager students is not almost independent of teaching methods.)

I cannot believe that the boys and girls of the U.S.S.R. have better brains or greater native ability than ours. What seems to exist there is a dedication to learning, a devotion to personal mental development surpassing anything to be seen here today. It corresponds in intensity to the pioneering days in the Western World, to the energy of the Gold Rush, to a crusade. The central question, then, is "How can we match this fervor?"

Well, we have a certain head start. We are both a sensitive and a practical people, but we may have grown overconcerned with improving an already unmatched scale of living. It may be that our children do not perceive the critical need to learn in the very interest of survival. One can scarcely expect it of them when we adults have difficulty of doing so. Our problem is to create for ourselves the strength of austerity before a harder working country, through its economic weapons, brings grave trouble (worse than austerity) on

As we face this menace of as yet obscure character, our best bet is still better education, particularly in depth. By our attitudes, precepts, and example we must restore learning to a high position among human activities so that it will be the normal behavior of pupils in school to learn with high courage and determination. Selfdiscipline is, of course, better than applied discipline, but any kind is better than none. It might just be that the difference between preserving our good life and going the way of ancient Rome before the barbarians lies in doing homework every night.

In education we can, I believe, find the way to convince the world that free men can outperform slaves of the state—but only with discipline. Perhaps we should go back to the "morals" spelled out in the old schoolbooks with the characteristic philosophy which the familiar chosen selections invariably sup-

ported and exemplified: "There is no excellence except by great effort." "Waste not, want not." "Knowledge is power." Isn't it a strange and unfortunate thing that in this age—when such maxims are called "corny" and a disparaging epithet applied to those who espouse them—our potential adversaries have set them up as their guideposts of conduct?

It may not be easy to instill in young people the necessary will to survive, the courage and faith to endure hardship for a time. And for adults the task may be still harder. Yet is this not a time for soul searching and selfimposed discipline? Is it not a time, above all, for teaching, by deed and example, the need for strength and self-reliance?

Education Lesson for Russians?

ONE wonders whether in the long run the high degree of dependence on education (in Russia) may not be the influence which may represent the strong possibility of significant changes in the Russian philosophy. The human mind does not always remain in the grooves in which it has been trained to run and the greater the ability of the individual and the higher the degree of training to which he has been subjected, the more likely is it that his mind will function independently. There seems reason to suppose, therefore, that the greater the emphasis on education in Russia, regardless of the nature of that education and training, the more likely it is that in the long run many of the minds in Russia will be sufficiently emancipated so that slavish acceptance of the Russian philosophy will be impossible. It will be interesting to see whether this phenomenon does occur.-M. H. Trytten, director, National Research Council Office of Scientific Personnel.

Changes in English Programs

ARNO JEWETT

In English Language Arts in American High Schools

EVERAL changes in English programs have taken place during the past quarter century. This is shown by a comparison of the courses of study and teaching guides in use today with the 1932 national study of the teaching of English made by Dora V. Smith and published under the title Instruction in English. Most of these changes, as described below, have come about gradually—at times almost imperceptibly—in response to new demands, social changes, and research findings.

Developmental reading instruction, for example, has become a part of the language-arts programs of many junior-high schools and of a few senior-high schools today. Dr. Smith in her study did not refer to developmental reading programs as such, although she did find that about one-third of the junior-high courses mentioned reading skills, often in connection with remedial programs.

The prevailing philosophy of today's teaching of developmental reading is expressed in an English bulletin published by the San Francisco schools. It points out that:

The organized teaching of reading as a skill should not stop suddenly at the end of elementary school. Most students in junior-high and senior-high schools, and

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even in colleges, need continuous help in improving their reading for speed, understanding, and appreciation. Such improvement is of vital importance, since inability to read is one of the greatest single causes of frustration in students and is thought by many authorities to be a basic cause for failure and dropping out.

Another guide points out that all members of the school staff should assume responsibility for teaching reading but that the English teacher "should assume leader-ship in helping teachers in other subject areas with reading techniques and aid in developing a schoolwide reading program."

In response to America's interests in world affairs and her position of leadership in the free world, over two-thirds of the courses developed since 1950 include units aimed at developing an understanding and appreciation of other peoples and cultures. Dr. Smith, 25 years ago, reported only one elective course

in "world masterpieces," and no reference was made, under her statement of aims of teaching literature in the high school, to developing an appreciation of other peoples and cultures through the study of world literature.

During the past 25 years, learning experiences in speaking and writing have become more closely related to the social, vocational, personal, and civic needs of youth. Today, resource units which have a guidance emphasis usually suggest numerous writing and speaking activities aimed at helping youth understand themselves and their associates. For grades 7 through 12 such units as "Growing Up," "Understanding Oneself," "Family Life," and "Understanding Others," often provide literary selections which motivate students to write and speak about their personal problems and their relationships.

Although the teaching of listening skills was not mentioned in Dr. Smith's survey 25 years ago, suggestions for teaching listening are found today in 70 percent of the state guides and 76 percent of the local guides. The importance of listening has been brought into focus by the popularity of radio, motion pictures, and television as media of instruction as well as entertainment. Today, listening is considered one of the language arts. As stated in the Pennsylvania Course of Study in English for the Secondary Schools:

Listening is one of the funda-

mental language skills. It is a medium through which children, young people, and adults gain a large portion of their education—their information, their understanding of the world and of human affairs, their ideals, sense of values, and their appreciation. In this day of mass communication (much of it oral), it is of vital importance that our pupils be taught to listen effectively and critically.

During the past quarter century the influence of mass media on pupils' language habits, vocabulary knowledge, cultural values, behavior patterns, and knowledge of life in general has become increasingly powerful. Recognition of this development has led many curriculum committees to incorporate learning activities and sometimes units on mass media in their courses of study. Today, two-thirds of the courses of study and guides include suggestions for teaching about magazines, newspapers, radio, and television. The chief aims of such instruction are to help pupils become discriminating in their selection of mass media, to evaluate what they read and hear, and to appreciate worthwhile programs based on well-known literature.

Dr. Smith, in 1932, reported that she had found only slight emphasis in courses of study on the teaching of critical thinking. Today, however, over half of the courses of study include objectives and activities which pertain to the teaching of propaganda analysis or critical thinking. Units and activities on critical thinking aim at helping

pupils note emotional appeals, loaded words, slanted communication, value judgments, stereotypes, half truths, diversionary arguments, name calling, and pseudoauthorities.

Recent courses of study in language arts seem to be moving away from propaganda analysis to a study of elementary semantics and the nature of language. Separate units of this type are to be found in bulletins produced by curriculum committees in a number of states. Such units acquaint pupils with the history of language, its social purpose, its imperfections as a tool for communication, its dynamic quality and evolving nature, the nature of meaning, levels of abstraction, connotation, and report language.

There have been several other major developments in language arts during the past quarter of a In brief, these are as century. follows:

- 1. An increased use of the unit method of instruction, especially of the resource unit.
- 2. A nationwide movement to teach reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills together whenever they are interrelated in a learning situation.
- 3. An extensive use or idea-centered thematic especially in the junior-high school.
- 4. A renewed interest in adapting the instructional program to meet the needs and promote the abilities of rapid- and slow-learning pupils.
 - 5. An ebort to determine ade-

quate scope and sequence for the language-arts programs, especially in grammar, usage, mechanics, and reading.

- 6. A general concern for improving articulation between all divisions of the school system from kindergarten through college.
- 7. A concerted effort to teach youth an appreciation of the privileges and obligations of living in a free democratic society and to insill in youth the moral values and ethics which help to unify free peoples.

The directions which English programs will take in the future will continue to be affected by changes on the local, national, and international scenes. civilization will continue to make more exacting and difficult demands on youth in the areas of the language arts. Language is the coin for creative thinking as well as the currency for exchanging ideas. It not only produces dividends in our daily life but it is the means whereby our spiritual and moral values are passed on through literature from one generation to the next.

It is because of his or her responsibilities for teaching reading, writing, speaking, and listening, that the teacher of language arts is the person on whom the success of the entire educational program depends. This is a fact which curriculum workers in every area of knowledge must consider in their efforts to improve the quality of secondary and higher education.

A Schoolmaster to America

Noah Webster:

Crusader for

American Literacy

GERTRUDE HILDRETH

In The Elementary School Journal

commemorative stamp issued on October 16, 1958, paid tribute to Noah Webster, American lexicographer, who was born 200 years ago in West Hartford, Connecticut. With true genius, Webster, whose name is synonymous with correct standards of speaking and spelling, carried on a lifelong campaign to promote universal literacy throughout the young republic.

The driving urge behind his labors was the zeal to build a strong united nation in the new world. Webster's aim was "to diffuse an uniformity and purity of language in America, to destroy the provin-

cial prejudices that originate in the trifling differences to dialect and produce reciprocal ridicule." Class distinctions, which were traditional abroad, could not be tolerated in a nation founded on democratic principles. Webster sensed that the prevalent lack of schooling and the wide distances that separated people on the frontier from centers of culture might perpetuate not only peculiarities of sectional speech but mass illiteracy as well.

The aim of Webster's lifelong campaign was to establish consistency in pronunciation according to the best standards of correctness. He was zealous in his campaign to regularize orthography of the American language and to simplify spelling where this was practical. Soon he became the sole arbiter in such matters

Webster accomplished his goals by many means. But none of these was more remarkable than the pocket-sized textbook The American Spelling Book, the famous blue-back speller, first published in 1783. Annual sales of the book rose to a million copies a year and more. By 1875, more than 75 million copies of this book had been distributed over the country. Often it was the only textbook in the hands of school children, the only schoolbook in the possession of the pioneers during their migration westward.

The popularity of the book reflects Webster's confidence in the value of universal elementary education and in the role of the schoolteacher as an intellectual leader in the community. There is no question that this book was a greater factor than any other in establishing universal literacy in America.

An examination of this quaint little textbook is a truly educative experience for anyone who is interested in methods, old and new, of bringing literacy to the young. The book contains preliminary material for teachers and word lists interspersed with reading material. On the first page there is an analysis of sounds in the English language with rules for placing the accent and for pronouncing certain endings. This material was intended for the schoolmaster rather than for young pupils. After the rules come columns of words arranged systematically in tables of onesyllable words, two-syllable words, and so on. The latter lists are again divided into groups of words accented on the first syllable, the second syllable, and so on. These words, in turn, are grouped according to the ease or difficulty of pronouncing them. There is a table, for example, of easy words of three syllables, accented on the second syllable. Within each table the words are arranged alphabetically. Last of all come the words that are most irregular and most difficult to pronounce.

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The reading material throughout the book is graded solely in terms of the number of syllables in the words. The amount of reading material that contains polysyllabic words increases steadily to the end of the book, making up at least half of the final pages. There are also lists of proper names: names from the Bible, names of historical figures, and place names in geography. Webster wanted children in grammar school to be able to pronounce these words easily.

Even a cursory glance through the pages proves that Webster's American Spelling Book was not originally intended as a "speller" in the commonly accepted meaning of the term. In Webster's day the school exercise now known as spelling was called orthography and to spell out meant to pronounce printed words by syllables, for example, pro-cras-ti-nate.

By modern standards all of this was a roundabout way of instructing children in reading. The artificial text limited to words of one syllable bore little resemblance to children's natural oral expression. The formal drill in word pronunciation must have made reading lessons irksome and unduly complicated for beginners. Learning to read by "spelling out" was undoubtedly a slow, discouraging process for most children.

By 1836 school readers better adapted to child life and children's natural modes of learning were being published in New England and Webster's little book was used

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less and less as a reader or a guide to pronunciation. A simpler use of the book was to assign columns of words for spelling practice according to the age and experience of the children. Used in this way, the book soon became famous as a speller in the modern sense of the term.

For a number of reasons, the compact little book was admirably suited for this use. Here were the most convenient, comprehensive lists of English words in print. With this handy reference source, spelling matches became the rage throughout the land-not only at school but in adult social life for evening entertainment. Children and adults alike enjoyed spelling, an easy memory feat for those who concentrated on practice. It is reasonable to suppose that the new meaning of the term spelling came directly from the use of this little volume with its word lists conveniently arranged for "spelldowns."

Webster could scarcely have objected to this use of his book, since any form of spelling practice with the word lists contributed directly

or indirectly to learning to read and write, thereby serving the ultimate goal of making literacy a national habit. In studying for the spelling matches, the children were learning to spell words according to improved standards. They were also learning the true pronunciation of words by ear as the author had hoped, and there was a definite carry-over from the practice in spelling a large vocabulary to sounding and word recognition in reading.

Throughout his lifetime, Webster was constantly at work on various projects and publications-a dictionary, textbooks, American constitutional policy, the census, copyright laws, and American history, to mention a few. But nothing he accomplished had more influence American life in his day-and he lived from 1758 to 1843—than his famous speller, the simple schoolbook with the blue paper covers. Exploring the yellowed pages of the well-worn little book makes one grateful for the legacy of Noah Webster, dedicated citizen, schoolmaster to America.

Webster Non Requiescat in Pace (Or Where's That Blue-Black Speller?)

- The recipe calls for one cup of affectionate sugar.— Reported by Mrs. Peck Baxter in NEA Journal.
- The rapid fall in pneumonia death rates since 1937 is due to the *Poloyo vaxcin.*—From *Science Review*.
- Careless phrasing (in music) is often caused by improper breeding.—From Gopher Music Notes.
- The Russians were the first to put a saddle light into space.—From Indiana Teacher.

Do You Have a Fear of Teaching Science?

Grade School Science Can Be Interesting

MARION BETAR

In The Educational Focus

LEACHERS in our elementary schools have had a great fear of subject-'Science.'" awful "that For one reason, they have felt that they were inadequately trained to teach such a complex subject. I ought to know because I was one of those teachers. I, like most of my fellow workers, had avoided science as much as possible in high school and college. Naturally, when we had to teach it, our methods of instruction mimicked the way we were taught. We played it safe, took it page by page, textbook style, and gave a test at the end of each chapter.

How the children suffered! How we suffered! The poor students had very little chance to increase their interests and abilities. Oh, we had activities! Every fall we studied leaves and seeds. We studied and experimented with plants and animals each year if the book said to. Sometimes, if there was time, we might do one or two ready-made experiments exactly the way Susan or David did in the textbook. We managed to cover the subject matter as was required. But was this teaching science?

This was the situation in our school when science began to take a more prominent place in the curriculum. Some of us felt more and more inadequate and we began to

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meet and discuss informally our common problems, our feelings of insecurity. We found that some of our teachers who had limited backgrounds were very successful and that they seemed to enjoy teaching science. They offered words of encouragement and invited us to visit their classrooms. Time to visit other classrooms was arranged and we were enlightened.

Later we made a formal study of our problems through a science committee, a series of faculty meetings, and conferences with consultants. This was followed by the organization of workshops in elementary science, one for primary-grade teachers and one for intermediate-The workshops grade teachers. were conducted by an instructor who understood the problems of our staff. Some of us were so interested we attended both workshops. Many teachers also have attended science workshops conducted at state universities during summer sessions. In-service programs are now being conducted in our immediate locality for those wishing further assistance and background.

Today, our teachers are sparked with enthusiasm. We continue to meet informally but these days we share and exchange ideas and are keeping a record of learning experiences we find most successful and purposeful. We have discovered that it is fun to try new ideas. We have found that the teacher need not always know the answers to childrens' questions and that "I don't know, but let's find out" is stimulating and challenging to both teachers and children. Now, I think we do teach science.

THE TEACHER'S TASK

Children are, by nature, full of curiosity and are constantly asking questions. They want and need to discover for themselves and to share their thoughts with their classmates and teachers. Most children love and enjoy science because it is a "doing" subject. Experimenting, observing, reading, discussing, field trips, and collecting are delightful avenues to worlds of new adventure for children. Our task, as teachers, is to guide children in setting up meaningful problems and to help children gather data, experiment, check, organize facts, and make generalizations which are within their ability range.

In our school, at the elementary level, children now are exploring the four major categories of science: The Earth and Its Atmosphere, The Universe, Living Things, and Physical and Chemical Forces and Phenomenons. Each area is being developed sequentially at each grade level. My own fifth graders selected Living Things as the area they wished to study first in the fall. Perhaps the appearance of several crickets in the classroom may have prompted this decision. How did the crickets get into the room? How do they make sounds? What do they eat? How do crickets raise their young? Are they insects?

AN INSECT UNIT

Our unit plans began with these problems. This led to searching through references and to discussion. As interest expanded, the children became curious to know more about other members of the insect family. And as the unit progressed, more and more interest in the examination of parts of insects became apparent. We prepared a killing jar, a small mayonnaise jar with cotton soaked in an insecticide. Another was developed which worked as well-a small jar of alcohol. Specimens were dissected and examined with hand lenses and later observed through our school's microprojector. Because of high group interest in preparing slides for the projector, we used plastic slides and covers made by the children. We now have a large slide file of insect parts which we plan to use later in the year at our school's annual Science Fair. We have had many visitors — children and teachers from other classrooms who were anxious to see what we were learning about insects. Many contributed

insects to our collection. It was not unusual to answer a knock at our door and find a tiny youngster holding a box or jar and asking, "Please help me to know what this is. I found it on the way to school."

How well do these children understand science? Evaluation of science at the elementary level is not merely discovering whether a child makes a satisfactory grade on a test which covers subject matter studied. Our objectives in science teaching are much broader. We are really concerned with how these facts fit together into meaningful concepts, with the method of problem solving, and with attitudes and interests and applications that have grown along with the learning. It is these that I wish to measure, and a test paper is not enough. I do most of my evaluating through observation of my children and recording ways children react, their progress in the ability to solve problems, and ways in which their behavior changes as a result of growth and understanding of concepts learned.

SOME REQUIREMENTS

A good science program requires the use of good science texts and audio and visual equipment. It is true that much of the equipment need not be elaborate laboratory items. Inexpensive and homemade items work out satisfactorily. However, it is important that pupils have some contact with truly scientific apparatus and materials as well. For example, one of our most

valued and useful pieces of equipment is the micro-projector-a combination microscope and projector made by Bausch & Lomb. It projects magnified images of slide specimens on a table surface or on a wall or screen. We have used it when studying microscopic plant and animal life, arthropod parts, plant parts, textiles, food, hair, blood, crystal formation, and in examining hundreds of other interesting objects.

As children move forward in school, it is hoped that each experience they have had in science has helped them to satisfy their curiosity about their world. If they grow in their ability to solve problems, perhaps attitudes, interests, and appreciations will be developed. The experiences which we provide should help to broaden and deepen their interests and should also challenge students with special interests and abilities. If we are successful in establishing a sound program of science education in the primary and intermediate grades, children will be less apt to seek ways to evade science courses offered in the secondary school.

As teachers and children study science they gradually build concepts and understandings of the world about us. It is through the understanding of what is happening around us and why it happens that we are helped to react intelligently. This is the process by which children become better prepared to live in today's and tomorrow's environment. Teachers, tool

Why Professional Preparation?

WALTER W. COOK

In NEA Journal

HERE are those among us who doubt that specific study of the educational process is a worthy one or that it has substance or content. This attitude is held in spite of the fact that it is a highly complicated process to bring the child—a potential savage—abreast of a culture and civilization which has taken more than 30 centuries to develop.

And, in addition to the process of humanizing the potential savage in the 12-year period of elementary and secondary education, schools have other complex tasks. They have the responsibility of enabling each pupil to develop to the maximum his aptitudes and abilities and to become aware of his peculiar strengths and weaknesses in order that he may find a satisfactory place in the world of work. Also-say some-the beliefs, attitudes, and values taught by the schools must not conflict with the creeds of religious denominations, with the tenets held by business and labor groups, or with the varying goals of patriotic organizations.

Yet there are those who will say that the person who undertakes this task needs no special preparation for it. And, as if the work of the teacher were not complicated enough, consider the difficulties of understanding the child and his behavior. No two pupils are alike. As

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development takes place, variability becomes greater. Even if we ignore the 2 percent at both ends of the distribution, there is a range of more than four years in the development of six-year-olds in those traits with which the school is concerned. By the time youngsters reach high school, the range of educationally significant abilities will be 10 or more years.

The critic may speak of homogeneous grouping, but the teacher knows that a single pupil is not homogeneous. His ability to comprehend literary material may be at the level of achievement of a 16-year-old, his ability to comprehend natural-science material may be at the 10-year-old level, his speed and accuracy of computation in arithmetic may fall near the nine-year level, while his ability to reason in arithmetic may measure at the 14-year level.

That teachers have learned ways of meeting individual needs in heterogeneous groups is not even suspected as being possible by the critics of courses in education.

The prescribing of an intellectual diet for the optimum development of a child is a complicated process. Unlike a diet of food, it must change daily. What stimulates and challenges the intellect today may not do so tomorrow. And that which stimulates and challenges the intellect of one child may not challenge that of another child.

Yet the teacher is said to need no help in prescribing daily an intellectual diet for 35 or more elementary pupils or as many as 200 high-school students.

The homes from which the children come, the social climates of the families, the values which are held to be important, the ambitions, victories, and disappointments which each child has-all operate to make the pupil a distinct personality. He must be known and understood if he is to be inspired and given hope and faith and selfrespect. Does the person responsible for all this require only a subject-matter preparation?

To be sensitive to the clues which a child gives in his eagerness for knowledge and to prevent his spontaneity from being deadened by a dull, inflexible schooling process require a level of insight and understanding on the part of the teacher which rarely can be left to intuition.

Knowledge—and Experience

• Experience is a wonderful thing. It enables you to recognize a mistake when you make it again.—From Pathfinder.

• "This examination," said the experienced professor, "will be conducted on the honor system. Please sit three seats apart and in alternate rows."-From The Balance Sheet.

• Listen to the opinions of others; it may not do you any

good, but it will them.-From Business Briefs.

Remember the old saying at Cambridge: "Here I am, my name is Jowett; I am the master of Balliol College. All there is to know, I know it. What I don't know, is not knowledge."-W. H. Kilpatrick in Progressive Education.

Nothing in education is so astonishing as the amount of ignorance it accumulates in the form of inert facts.-From

• An educated man is one who has finally discovered that there are some questions to which nobody has the answers.

-From Texas Outlook.

• The Chinese believe that there's an age in which to learn everything. If you try to teach a child too young, he can't learn it; and you just wear yourself out and ruin his temper and your own, too .- Pearl Buck.

The Status of Women in School Administration

ALICE S. BARTER

In Educational Horizons

URING World War II, American women served in many capacities from which they previously had been debarred. In great numbers, they infiltrated factories, schools, business establishments, and the armed forces. Contrary to expectations, women continued to hold down these jobs after the war ended. As a consequence, the number of women wage-earners has increased.

Paralleling the rise in the number of women employes has been an improvement in their status as workers. Although outstanding effort and ability are often required of women who compete favorably against men for higher-level positions, the number of women holding supervisory or executive positions is growing.

Since World War II, the status of women within the teaching profession appears to run counter to the general pattern described above. From 1925-50, the percentage of women holding administrative positions in the school systems of this country has declined, although more women were teaching than ever before. A practice that will do little to arrest this decline is that of inducing young men to become elementary-school teachers with the understanding that a promotion to the elementary-school

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principalship will be rapid. Since the war, there has been a concerted effort to bring more men into the teaching profession, particularly as teachers of elementary-school children. In order to attract or retain these men, some school systems have weighted opportunities for administrative advancement strongly in their favor.

Developments such as this invite inquiry. As women we are particularly curious about what pertains to us as a sex. Probably we have asked ourselves such questions as these: How well are women represented on the administrative staffs of their school systems? What attitudes on the part of teachers themselves have contributed to the status of women teachers?

A study that sought some answers—from both women and men teachers—to these and related questions was recently completed by the author at the University of Michigan. The results were not always as anticipated.

Here, briefly are some of the facts learned: (1) Women teachers were more favorable toward women principals than men teachers. (2) Women interested in the principalship as a career were more favorwomen principals toward than women not interested in that career. (3) Men teachers who had had teaching experience with women principals were more favorable toward them than men having had no experience with them. (4) The majority of teachers rated men and women principals equal in abilities and personal qualities. (5) Approximately 46 percent of the men but only 7.8 percent of the women teachers were definiteinterested in the elementary principalship as a career. (6) Men prepared teachers were better academically than women teachers for appointments to the principalship. (7) A preference for teaching was given by both men and women teachers as their chief reason when there was disinterest in the principalship. (8) Most teachers felt their systems showed preference for men in appointments to the principalship. (9) Only six of the 18 school systems queried had definite policies for promotion to the elementary principalship and no system stated a policy favoring men for promotion to the principalship. (10) The proportion of men and women principals in these systems was four men to every woman.

Despite the fact that women elementary-school principals were def-

initely in the minority in the school systems studied, the data gathered for the study did not show that policies discriminate against women and that qualified women seeking appointment to the principal-ship within these systems would not be given fair consideration. Also, the attitudes of elementary teachers toward women principals appears to be no great obstacle to a woman's success as an elementary-school principal.

However, it is predicted that the number of women holding administrative positions will decline regardless of these conditions if more women do not prepare themselves for these positions and if the great majority of them continue to reject the principalship as a career. In fact, if the teachers sampled in this study are typical of teachers generally, the apathetic attitude of women teachers toward administrative appointments emerges as a key factor in their present status.

As a means to stimulate women to seek administrative appointments, the following suggestions may be useful: (1) a course of study in schools of education especially designed to prepare women administration; (2) for school intern-type training which will shorten the step from classroom to office; and (3) improved promotional policies-better defined and more specific-as well as more publicity about administrative vacancies, which would encourage qualified people of both sexes to apply for promotion to such posts.

How Well Does Johnny Read?

Values and Limitations of Standardized Reading Tests

ARTHUR E. TRAXLER

In Evaluation of Reading

REVERSING the title, I shall speak first of limitations and then of values. This reversal does not mean that I believe the limitations are more important than the values, but that there are certain limitations which are inherent in the reading process and which logically ought to be considered first of all.

The first kind of limitation is to be found in the very nature of the reading act. Reading is a complex, unified, continuous activity which does not naturally fall into subdivisions or measurable units. In this respect, reading differs from other basic skills, such as arithmetic and spelling. And while there is considerable agreement that there are three broad aspects of reading on which information is neededspeed, vocabulary, and comprehension-a second limitation arises because of the complexity of these subdivisions. For instance, the measurement of rate of reading is not the simple procedure it may at first seem to be. There is not just one rate of reading for an individual

-the speed at which he covers an exciting novel may be several times as fast as his rate of reading a research article.

A third limitation is the lack of clear differentiation between measurement of reading comprehension and measurement of intelligence. When we give a reading test that really probes ability to think about the reading material, are we measuring reading or intelligence? The answer is that scores on this kind of test represent a composite of both intelligence and ability to read. Hence, it is very difficult to predict how much the scores of individuals who are low on such a test may be improved by teaching.

A fourth limitation of reading tests is the time-consuming nature of the measurement of reading, particularly reading comprehension. Vocabulary test items can be done quickly, but reading comprehen-

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sion tests are not efficient because of the necessity of covering both reading passages and questions based on them. This limitation can readily be removed if schools agree to devote a period of two or three hours to the measurement of reading instead of 40 minutes or less.

Notwithstanding the limitations of standardized reading tests, it would be next to impossible to plan and carry on a modern reading program without them. They have positive values for instruction in reading in all schools.

LENDS DEFINITENESS

Perhaps the most important value of a reading test-or any other standardized test-is that it lends a certain amount of definiteness to our thinking about the achievement of a pupil or a group. Without reading tests, it is possible only to say: "Here is a pupil who appears to be a good reader; here is another who doesn't read well." But we cannot be very confident about our classification when it is done simply on a subjective basis. Reading tests enable us to speak about reading ability in quantitative terms with considerable confidence, provided we keep in mind that every test score contains an error of measurement and that we recognize the unimportance small differences in score.

When a reading test is given to a seventh-grade class, it is possible to say, "That pupil reads about as well as the average ninth grader; this pupil is approximately at the

fifth-grade level in reading ability; and here is a very retarded pupil whose reading is still on the level of grade 2." Moreover, if the test yields part scores, we can make such further quantitative statements as, "In comparison with the norms for his grade, John has a rate of reading percentile of 96, a vocabulary percentile of 52, but a comprehension percentile of only 15."

These kinds of information lend definiteness and direction to the planning of reading instruction for both groups and individuals. They provide reasonably firm basis for developmental, corrective, and remedial programs, even though teachers need to remind themselves occasionally that the basis is not quite as solid and dependable as the bald, bold figures suggest, because of the limitations of reading tests already mentioned.

GROWTH APPRAISAL

A second value of reading tests is for the appraisal of growth of individuals and groups in a developmental reading program. Is the total reading program of the school well designed to bring about normal or better growth of pupils at all grade levels and levels of ability? If not, where do the weaknesses exist? Such questions as these cannot be answered simply through the use of observation and teacher judgment. But if different forms of tests yielding comparable scores are used annually, and if the results are carefully studied, a constant check can be kept on the reading program as a whole and on the rate of reading growth of indi-

vidual pupils.

A third value of reading tests lies in diagnosis of the strengths and weaknesses of groups and individuals as a starting point for corrective or remedial work. However, it should be kept in mind that reading tests are not in themselves diagnostic. They yield worthwhile information for diagnosis only when someone attempts to relate the results to other kinds of information about the pupil.

Still another value of reading tests lies in the early identification of gifted pupils. Nearly all gifted pupils read well, particularly in the field of their greatest ability and interest. When the gifted child first enters school, his reading ability sometimes may be beyond the usual reading test designed for the lower primary grades, and a more difficult test may be needed in order to measure his actual achievement. It is desirable to supplement the school's regular testing program with reading tests appropriate to the ability level of very superior children so that suitable activities may be planned for them. Too often attempts to identify the gifted are delayed until the junior- or senior-high school level. This is frequently too late, for by that time many potentially outstanding children will have fallen into habits of an easy mediocrity in reading, as well as in other school activities.

Now I would like to comment briefly on the values and limitations of several types of reading tests.

TYPES OF TESTS

One kind is that which yields only one total score. Forty or 50 years ago, when the first objective tests appeared, a number of reading tests were one-score tests, but tests of this kind almost appeared from the scene until 1957, when the Sequential Tests of Educational Progress (Educational Testing Service, 1957), or STEP, were published. At each level, the reading test of this series is a 70minute test yielding only one overall score. The STEP Reading Test is a most carefully constructed test, but it is difficult to see how it will be of much value in a reading program if used alone. However, there is also in the STEP series a Listening Comprehension Test. It is believed that a listening test is one of the best measures of potential reading ability, although more research evidence is needed on this point. In any event, the STEP Listening Test and the STEP Reading Test, when used together, should furnish some information having broad diagnostic value.

At the other extreme, there is a kind of reading test in which an attempt is made to obtain within a class period a large number of part scores for purposes of diagnosis. This type of test is well illustrated by the Iowa Silent Reading Tests (World) and the California Reading Tests (California

Test Bureau). Such tests, in which the time limits for the parts are very brief, either will have a large speed component in all scores, or the number of questions in each part will be so small that the scores will be low in reliability, or both. The total scores on these tests are often highly reliable, but it is more appropriate to use the part scores on tests of this kind for the study of groups than for individual diagnosis.

A third kind of reading test is aimed at the measurement of three aspects of reading believed to be especially important, such as rate, vocabulary, and power of comprehension. Fairly reliable measures of these aspects may be obtained within a class period, although the reliability of the comprehension score tends to be somewhat low.

In the primary grades the measurement of three or more aspects of reading ability within the same class period presents difficulties because of the short attention span of young children. Gates met this problem by having his Primary Reading Tests (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College) printed separately—one each for word recognition, sentence reading, and paragraph reading. The Gates tests continue to be among the most satisfactory reading tests for use at this level.

The most logical way of meeting the needs for a quickly administered survey test and dependable diagnostic scores would seem to be through a coordinated battery in

which the survey test would be given first, to be followed by diagnostic tests appropriate to the weaknesses indicated on an individual or small-group basis. Thus far, the only tests of this kind are the Diagnostic Reading Tests (Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests, Inc.). The Committee has also undertaken to provide teaching materials for use in overcoming the weaknesses revealed by the diagnosis.

ONLY PARTIAL INFORMATION

As already suggested, reading tests furnish only a portion of the information needed in carrying on a school reading evaluation program. So far as is possible, these tests should be used in conjunction with individual tests of mental ability, listening ability, achievement tests in the content areas, measures of interests, and inventories of personal qualities.

Standardized reading tests have limitations, in addition to those mentioned earlier, in that they furnish no direct information about interests or personality. As all teachers know, the sources of reading difficulty are not always to be found in the learning area. They often originate in the pupil's home, in his social group, in health and physical handicaps, or in his general adjustment to the environment of the school. Reading test scores reach their greatest meaning and usefulness when they fall into place in a comprehensive individual cumulative record.

Comparative Study of Novels

DAVID M. LITSEY

In The English Journal

HIS is a report of a junior English unit on the novel. It arose as a protest against students' being led through novels and told that such and such a book (Huckleberry Finn, Swiftwater, Great Expectations, etc.) is good because of its "superbly motivated characterization," its "realistic plot," its "indelibly delineated setting," or like criterions.

The unit was based on the theory that judgments take on precision and profundity as we formulate them with an abundance of comparative background. Realism becomes more real when matched against the melodrama of a poor novel; characterization becomes more finely etched when held against a background of caricature or stereotype; the vivid setting stands out when compared with the prosaic and trite description of an inferior novel.

Students need, somewhere along the line, to be taken by the hand and led slowly through a concrete demonstration of the good and bad, successful and unsuccessful, meaningful and unmeaningful—in the specific novel. With this in mind a two-novel comparison was worked out.

From a score of suitable books, we chose *The Wyoming Bubble* by Elston and *The Pearl* by Steinbeck David M. Litsey is a teacher in St. Louis Park High School, St. Louis Park, Minnesota. Reported from The English Journal, XLIII (March 1959), 149-51.

as "bad" and "good" respectively. Generally speaking, the novels used should be broadly matched as to type for more effective comparison.

One of the things that characterizes the poorer novel is its insidious and oftentimes unwarranted assumptions in regard to life. Hazel Sample in her Pitfalls for Readers of Fiction pointed out many good examples, such as: that adulthood is a glamorous, mysterious realm; that college is a magic, charmed environment full of dates and football games; that complex consequences or situations can be attributed to one cause; and that if one works hard and gets a good education he will naturally rise to the top. Readers need to be "sensitized" to these assumptions, to come aware of them, and to examine them, true or

Now, during this unit we first discussed assumptions in literature and, in sample passages, found ample illustrations. Then the class read the first two chapters of *The Wyoming Bubble* in class. Following this, the class, with help, elic-

ited six assumptions contained in merely the first two chapters of this book.

In a different vein, and at the same point in the reading, the students were asked to write a short sketch of the main character, Russ Hyatt. A few short minutes of agony were enough to convince them the job was Herculean-because they knew nothing about him, nor, as they later learned, were they ever to know anything significant of his background, motivations, etc. He was flat. The flatness became signal when later comelemental but the pared with The three-dimensional Kino Pearl

The melodrama of the Bubble was the most obvious of its intellectual insults. (The hero was shot at countless times, once by a professional gun-slinger at close range as he stood silhouetted against a street light.) I wasn't just sure of the attitude the class would take. Luckily, they decided to be supersophisticated and hate the bookwith force!

Once we moved into our contrast novel, The Pearl, I had trouble subduing the manifold exuberance of the class (which was exaggerated). We had been reading rapidly, but now we slowed down a little to enjoy the beauties of the language and to "sponge up" the technical excellence of the mechanical construction. Although here, too, we found unwarranted assumptions and melodramatic bits—even black and white characters some-

times—the grandeur of the book triumphed. Discussion was possible on many different planes.

We took a look at the background music theme. If a native is inarticulate, how are the experiences of life to be apperceived but as either a strange foreboding or comforting harmony? Thus, the Song of the Family or of Evil or of the Undersea. We compared it to Greek drama in intensity, in theme, in use of the townspeople as a chorus to interpret the action.

The technical superiority of Steinbeck as a writer to Elston was noted and approved. We considered the excellence of description of the town, the beach, and the sea —in the second chapter. We remarked the tremendous episode at the pearl buyers, noted the sentence construction, the careful choice of diction, the attention to details, the realism. This was all highlighted by the shadow of The Wyoming Bubble, where the effect was coarse and broad. In Steinbeck there was power, yet delicacy.

This comparative study was done within the context of a "contract" unit. Among the many activities was a great deal of critique writing. There was no final examination, nor does the author feel sympathy with that segment which aspathy with that segment which aspathy with that a "unit examination" is a must. The report papers, which a report papers, which are provided meaningful writing practice, and class response in our many discussions showed the reading maturity attained and the success of the unit.

Music Literature, Theory, and Composition in the High School

In Music in the Senior High School

As a part of the "Music in American Education" program of the Music Educators National Conference a committee has been studying problems relating to the teaching of music literature, theory, and composition. For the purpose of arriving at a basic philosophy for these fields and the recommendation of a practical approach toward their inclusion in the educational program, a survey was necessary to ascertain the present status of these subjects in the high school. The committee, therefore, has examined the situation in 121 schools which represent school districts of every size in 28 of the United States. A summary of some of the findings follows.

The questionnaires used the term "music theory" to refer to all subjects commonly included under such headings as music fundamentals, harmony, solfeggio, counterpoint, arranging, and form analysis. Almost a third of the schools indicated that they offered a special course in some of these. Some theory is taught as part of the course content for performance groups, but there were more schools that indicated this was not a planned course of theory study than there were schools with such an organized presentation.

Reported from Music in the Senior High School, a publication of Music Educators National Conference, prepared by the MENC Music in American Life Commission on Music in the Senior High School,

Chapter VI, Part II, 76-79.

Planned theory work was reported most frequently in connection with beginning band and girls' glee club and least often in advanced choir or advanced band. Practically all groups learned musical terminology. Scale structure received much emphasis in advanced chorus and both intermediate and advanced band. Interval study was frequently included in advanced chorus, small vocal groups, and advanced and intermediate band. Harmony study was a part of the work in select as well as general chorus, and was also included in advanced and intermediate band.

The questionnaire used the term "music literature" to include all the musical materials used in the student's high-school experience. Almost half of the schools reported at least one music literature course, usually as an elective, and a number of schools offered more than one such course. The courses most frequently named "music literature" were general music, appreciation of music, music history, and standard repertoire. When asked the type of music experience offering the greatest understanding of music literature, most respondents favored active participation in bands, choirs, and orchestras over "special courses."

Regarding composition, were some respondents who felt that a high-school music composition class would be desirable. But the more frequent response was that composition should be the outgrowth of either a harmony class or a performance group. The incentive provided by public performance of students' original work was considered by many teachers the most important factor in encouraging creative endeavor. Some respondents objected to the suggestion of a high-school music composition class on the basis of overspecialization and recommended that such a course be reserved for college.

Participation in groups, both large and small, ranked highest when educators were asked to name the experiences most important in encouraging students to write original music. "Private lessons" and "providing music for use with other high-school activities" ranked next in order.

A section of the questionnaire gave music teachers opportunity to present their attitudes and those of their administrators toward special classes in music literature, theory, and composition and the

inclusion of these subjects, not as special classes, but as supplementary to performance. A summary of the replies shows that special classes are considered desirable for broadening and enriching the high-school curriculum, but are often excluded because of scheduling and staffing problems involved.

College entrance requirements do not allow enough credit for music, which has a tendency to dim the enthusiasm of some administrators for special music classes. There is also the problem of justifying special classes in which enrolment might be very small. On the other hand, while present circumstances make special music classes impractical for the majority, many teachers are concerned over the haphazard nature of their efforts to include any teaching of music theory, literature, and composition through their regular performance groups.

One section of the questionnaire gave the teachers an opportunity to evaluate the adequacy of their own college training as preparation for teaching these subjects. Only a very small minority felt that they were not adequately prepared to teach music theory in high school while a fifth of the respondents expressed some dissatisfaction with respect to their training experience in the field of music literature. On the other hand, just under half of the teachers felt qualified to teach music composition; almost as many felt that their preparation had been inadequate for such an assignment.

How Can Input, Imagery, and Output Be Balanced?

Psychology of Spelling

JEAN S. HANNA and PAUL R. HANNA

In The National Elementary Principal

HE study of the history of the teaching of spelling in the schools reveals that the different approaches made to this subject over the years have been based on various assumptions on how learning takes place. The repetitive drill is one. The emphasis placed on memory—as in the learning of spelling rules and principles of orthography—is another. More recently there has been the emphasis on the role of pupil interest and the importance of meaning to the learning of the spelling skill.

Credit is due to the many researchers who have contributed to our knowledge of the psychology of spelling. To date, the research on learning to spell has, however, neglected serious study of the basic sciences of neurology, endocrinology, and physiology. Likewise, little attention by spelling researchers has been paid to such fields as cybernetics (communication theory) or to the model of the electronic computer. As of this moment no one has done much speculating and even less careful research on how the findings and theories of these branches of science might affect our knowledge of what actually takes place in (1) perceiving in the sensory organs the sounds, sights, and feelings of the spelling word to be learned; (2) transmitJean S. Hanna is an author and former teacher and Paul R. Hanna is Lee L. Jacks Professor of Child Education, Stanford University, Palo Alto, California. Reported from the authors' article, "Spelling as a School Subject: A Brief History," as published in The National Elementary Principal, XXXVIII (May 1959), 17–23.

ting these sensory impressions to the central nervous system (brain); (3) sorting and storing the imagery in the cell assemblies of the brain; (4) transmitting the image into the motor (neuromuscular) mechanism that finally hand-writes or handtypes the correct spelling of the word needed.

The complex neurological behavior of the spelling act is not understood at the moment. But it should not be too difficult to perceive that spelling may properly be thought of as behavior that is learned, retained, and used through the brain and its sensory organs and neuromuscular mechanisms. What are pointing out is that spelling is essentially a matter of neurological input, imagery, and output. While we know that the brain acts as a unit, we can still educate the brain for spelling through first emphasizing one type of input and imagery,

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and then stressing another type. Each of the types-visual, oralaural, and haptical-must be systematically planned and learned in the spelling program. And as each type of imagery is learned, it must be systematically joined and coordinated with the other types of imagery so that the net result is a reinforcement by each of the others.

PROCESSES USED

A modern spelling program uses in balance, in alternation, and for the purposes of reinforcement, the

following processes:

1. Oral-aural analysis of the phonemes in the 3000 basic words which are, on school entrance, well within the vocal communication of children; teaching the alphabetical letters used to write the 80 percent of the phonemes in the 3000 word list that are spelled consistently one way; teaching that some of the phonemes (20 percent) are troublesome in that they may be spelled several ways, but that there are clearly observable classes of these irregularly spelled phonemes that can be learned together (final long sound of a is almost always spelled ay as in play, say, may).

2. Visual analysis of the alphabetical letters in a word arranged in sequence to fix an image that may be called into the mind's conscious foreground to guide the motor response. This visual imagery is aided by the oral-aural power of analysis.

3. Haptical practice in which the objective is to fix through hand

repetition a motor image so firmly that the hand will write or type the letters of the word with only semiconscious feedback or checking by the eye against the visual image stored in the brain.

4. Thinking or the application of structural principles to the spelling problem (e.g., making derivations

out of root words).

No spelling program devised during the first half of this century balanced the training of neurological input, imagery, and output as suggested above. Fortunately, there are today several alternative programs that build on our newer neurological and our psychological knowledge. There can be a profitable union of the interest and meaning approach, developed during the 1920-1955 period, with the systematic program of developing oral-aural, visual, and haptical imagery. To the extent that our children possess an oral-aural mastery of the meaning and use of most of the spelling words, we can add the one new, powerful spelling tool of phonemic analysis. And to these approaches we must add the current theories and practices of forming and using generalizations about the structure of the spelling of our language.

TODAY'S OBJECTIVE

From such a coordinated spelling program there will surely emerge a majority who have mastered the basic list and its derivatives and in addition will have developed the power to spell words far in excess of the minimum now thought adequate. Building spelling power is the objective of to-

day's spelling programs.

The early spelling textbooks offered no special plan for studying the words. By 1900, however, most spelling series seemed to favor a weekly plan for studying a prescribed list of words.

Controversy arose over whether study of the list should open the week's work, or whether the pupil should first be tested to find which words he needed to study. This controversy was settled by research and common sense so that on alternate days pupils studied, were tested, studied, and again were tested.

WEEKLY SCHEDULE

When the idea of the story or theme became the popular way to present the study words for the week, then Monday's spelling time was consumed in reading and discussing the theme or story. But it is now recognized that a simple sentence or picture will focus meaning for the child who most likely already uses the word freely in his verbal communication and needs no intensive period of developing meaning and readiness. Further, with the addition of the aural-oral analysis in building spelling power, the time formerly consumed by a theme or story can now be put to better use in presenting the words to be learned during the week, with much attention to the similarities in phonemes, and consistencies and

variations in spelling these sounds. The typical weekly plan today has these daily features:

First Day. Words to be studied for the week are presented through pictures or simple sentences. Meaning of each word is developed. Major phonemic principle illustrated by the word list is presented. Any unusual spelling of phonemes is observed. The words are written by copying directly.

Second Day. All pupils are tested to discover which words in the list need special attention by each

child.

Third Day. Words missed on the first test are studied. Further practice on the phonemic principle. Re-

view words are studied.

Fourth Day. Study of words missed in first test and previous final tests are continued. Practice on aural-oral analysis of words in list is continued and spelling power is built by applying rules and generalizations to words not in list but similar in orthography. Additional spelling words are learned by forming derivates from the word list. Pupils study their list of My Own Words encountered in their individual writing.

Fifth Day. Final test on words in week's list and on words missed in previous final tests. Test on pu-

pil's My Own Words.

Such a weekly study plan plus a consistent and persistent re-evaluation with carry-over of unlearned words should provide the pupil with the elements necessary to help him develop spelling power.

OCTOBER

₩ With Education in Washington ★

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

A Distinguishing Feature.—The first session of the 86th Congress never came to grips with a single major educational issue. This one fact distinguishes this session from those of previous years.

"In previous years we've at least had the satisfaction of a major bill coming up for a final vote, even though it was defeated," Washington observers have remarked. During the session of Congress which ended in September, there were talk, testimony, debate. But final legislative action was confined to relatively minor measures—with one exception. The exception: Congress approved close to \$1 billion in grants and appropriations for educational purposes for 1960.

One of the largest appropriations, totalling \$225 million, was for federally-affected school districts. This, incidentally, was \$45 million more than the President's budget asked for, and is a fair sample of the generous mood in which Congress basked during the session. Other large appropriations went for National Science Foundation education activities (\$152 million); the National Defense Education Act (\$150 million); and school lunches (\$110 million). Another indication of Congressional largesse: the Administration asked only \$5 million for rural libraries; Congress voted \$6 million.

Of the three minor measures on which Congress acted, two hardly

made the back pages of the nation's newspapers:

1. Overseas teachers. As a result of a new law, PL 91, some 4,500 teachers employed in schools operated by the Department of Defense now enjoy a professional salary schedule.

Previously these teachers, employed in so-called "dependent schools" from Africa to Labrador, worked under a 12-month calendar year schedule prescribed for civil service employees. The new schedule calls for 10 months of employment and grants the overseas teachers all the holidays observed by schools on the continent.

2. Spanish-American war veterans. It is now more than half a century since the boys came marching home, but on August 25, 1959, Congress completed action on a bill providing orphan's educational benefits for children of Spanish-American War veterans who died of a service-connected disability. (Similar benefits for orphans of World War I and II and Korean War veterans are already on the books.)

One bill that did hit the front pages was the controversial housing bill, two items of which affected education. Colleges and universities located in the heart of cities stood to benefit under the urban renewal clause; and higher education had a title of its own which provided more funds and loans for

the construction of dormitories and other academic facilities.

The housing bill attracted a good deal of attention because it had at least two lives. The first version was vetoed by the President. A second bill, passed in both Houses by roll-call vote, was promptly vetoed the second time.

The overseas teacher bill was promptly signed by the President while the Spanish-American bill awaited his certain signature.

This by no means completes the record of Congressional activity on school measures.

The Senate passed two bills—one creating a Youth Conservation Corps and one setting up a system of school benefits for Post Korean veterans—and sent them on to the House. (These bills are discussed more fully below.) And to round out the story for the Senate, it also approved a bill providing modest grants-in-aid to the states for the construction of educational TV facilities.

As for the issues which Washington observers call "major," Congressional action can be summed up in two sentences:

Scores on scores of bills seeking large sums of money for school construction, for teacher salaries, or for both purposes got nowhere.

The Murray-Metcalf bill, the measure supported by the National Education Association, was kicked around throughout the session and at the end the verdict was as follows: "The Murray-Metcalf bill is not dead, neither is it alive."

Ex-GI Education. — The exserviceman of World War II flocked to courses preparing him for jobs in industry and business. The ex-serviceman of the Korean conflict tended to enrol in courses leading to a profession. What type of education will the post-Korean veteran be interested in?

This question interests Congress because the Senate has approved a bill setting up school benefits for men whose period of military service will fall between 1955 and 1963. The House will pick up the measure during the second session. In the meantime, Congressional committees are assembling additional facts to serve as the basis for the final enactment of "as noteworthy a piece of legislation as the G. I. Bill of Rights of 1944."

Congress is especially impressed with the results of the World War II G. I. Bill. The Senate Labor and Public Welfare Committee pointed to these facts:

"Of the more than 7,800,000 veterans who received training, 2,200,000 attended college; 3,500,000 went to schools below the college level; 1,400,000 took on-the-job training, and 700,000 enrolled in institutional on-farm training.

"GI Bill training has helped raise both the income and educational levels of veterans. The median income of veterans has gone up 51 percent over the past six years, compared with a 10 percent rise for nonveteran males in the same age group."

A decade later, the Korean vet

OCTOBER

eran looked to his G. I. Bill as something more than a ticket to a job in industry or business. Says the Senate Labor and Public Welfare Committee:

"The Korean readjustment training program is predominantly a college program. The percentage of Korean trainees who enrolled in colleges is almost twice as large as the percentage of World War II college trainees. A correspondingly smaller percentage of Korean trainecs have trained in business and industrial establishments or on farms, and a much smaller percentage have trained in schools below the college level."

The Senators concluded that Korean veterans are a serious minded group. They have facts to

support that conclusion:

A comparison with World War II trainees disclosed that a greater proportion of the Korean trainees have taken courses in scientific fields or other fields which require the most extensive training and knowledge. The scientific field has attracted over a quarter million Korean trainees. Of this group, 161,000 selected engineering and 40,000 selected other physical and natural science objectives, such as chemistry, geology, physics, and biology. The teaching profession has attracted 107,000 Korean trainees. This is a much higher proportion than the World War II program attracted.

As for the post-Korean veteran, it is too early to know what educational pathways he will follow. In

considering the third GI Bill in 15 years, Congress is in effect setting up an endowment policy for young men who never fought in a hot war and many of whom have not yet put on a uniform.

A New CCC?-A majority of Senators agree with a majority of school administrators that there is a need for a youth organization patterned after the Civilian Conservation Corps of 1933.

The Senators expressed their judgment in a 47-45 vote approving S 812. This would establish a Youth Conservation Corps. The House may take up this measure during the second session starting

next year. The school administrators voiced their approval in informal reports to the American Association of School Administrators. The AASA headquarters in Washington believes (unofficially) that three out school superintendents of four would approve the corps.

It was Senator Humphrey (D., Minn.) who first proposed the youth organization "as a new structure to mitigate against the shameful waste of human and natural resources." The proposed youth organization would enrol boys between the ages of 16 to 21 and set them to work on projects conserving and developing our natural resources. At the same time, the boys would be provided with "a system of education," including work experience and on-the-job training. Boys would enrol for a period of six months but could re-enlist. The first year the Youth Conservation Corps would take in not more than 50,000 persons; the second year, 100,000; each year after, not exceeding 150,000.

Justifying his plan, Senator Humphrey said: "The unique character of this proposal is that it combines so beautifully two major public undertakings. The happy fact is that in providing for useful, constructive, healthful work for boys, we are in the same act making possible a fresh start on the desperately needed conservation work on our publicly owned lands, largely postponed since 1940 and the beginning of World War II."

Senator Humphrey added that each juvenile delinquent costs the Nation \$25,000. "If we could turn only 10,000 boys each year away from the path that leads to delinquency, the taxpayers of the country could be saved an annual expenditure of \$250 million."

The close vote in the Senate shows that there is strong opposition to the plan. Senator Bennett (R., Utah) called it "a deceptive boondoggle." He said it would cost about \$450 million a year. He doubted whether the Youth Conservation Corps would be of much use in combating juvenile delinquency or in helping conserve natural resources.

Up, Up, Up.—Some 35,990,000 public-school pupils are sitting in the nation's classrooms this October. This is 1,370,000 more chil-

dren than were enrolled a year ago and represents the fifteenth consecutive yearly rise in school enrollments.

Is there a leveling off in sight? It does not appear that way to the Bureau of the Census. Its statisticians have looked ahead as far as 1963. They see continued growth of the school-age population at least until that year.

The Bureau's projections show that nearly all states will have more children of school age in 1963 than in 1957—in fact 21 percent more. But some states will have rates of growth well above the national average. Thus, Alaska's school-age population in 1963 will be 81 percent above its 1957 figure; Nevada, 50 percent above; and Arizona, 42 percent above. The 1963 school population of only Arkansas and West Virginia will be slightly below that of 1957.

During the next four years, the number of school-age children will grow by about 1,500,000 a year, the Bureau says. Whether there will be a diminution in the growth after 1963, the Bureau does not predict.

Federal statisticians find it easier to look back than ahead. In summing up what has been happening to the school-age group in this decade, the Bureau reports: "The rate of growth in the school-age population since 1950 has been substantially higher than that of the total population. In fact the school-age group has grown twice as rapidly as the total population."

OCTOBER

Educational News

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENCIES:

New Castle, Pa.: Howard S. Stewart, formerly assistant superintendent, has succeeded Walter A. Kearney, now director of the Mc-Keesport campus of Pennsylvania State University.

Janesville, Wis.: Fred Holt, formerly superintendent at West Bend, Wis., is successor to Vernon E.

Klontz, retired.

Kankakee, Ill.: Walter W. Knecht, formerly high-school principal at Kankakee, has been named superintendent, succeeding Anthony Marinaccio, now superintendent at Davenport, Ia.

Hot Springs, Ark: Hugh L. Mills, formerly superintendent at Monticello, has been appointed superin-

tendent.

Ypsilanti, Mich.: Paul Emerich, formerly superintendent at Fremont, Mich., has been appointed successor to Evart W. Ardis, now director of the bureau of appointments and occupational information, University of Michigan.

Taft, Calif.: Milton G. Ross has retired after 37 years' service in the

school district.

College Presidents:

Oberlin College, Ohio: Robert Kenneth Carr, professor of law at Dartmouth College, Hanover, N.H., has been named successor to William E. Stevenson, resigned. Dr. Stevenson has been president since 1946.

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS:

University of Missouri, Columbia: Howard W. Heding, formerly of Oklahoma State University, has been named associate professor of education, succeeding W. W. Carpenter, retired.

Boston University, Mass.: Malcolm S. Knowles, executive director of the Adult Education Association

of the U. S. since 1951, has been named associate professor of education and general consultant in adult education

The American University, Washington, D. C.: Chalmer A. Gross, formerly of Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, has been named associate professor of education.

John W. Devor is now chairman of the department of education at the university, replacing Samuel Engle Burr, now director of off-campus and in-service programs.

OTHER CHANGES AND APPOINTMENTS:

Earl Wooster, formerly superintendent of Washoe County Schools, Reno, is now executive secretary of the Nevada State Education Association, succeeding Chester V. Davis.

Jack Culbertson, formerly associate professor of education at the University of Oregon, Eugene, is now executive director of the University Council for Educational Administration, succeeding Daniel R. Davies, who has returned to Teachers College, Columbia University. The UCEA is now establishing permanent headquarters at Ohio State University, Columbus, financed by a grant of \$250,000 from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation.

L. Frazer Banks, retired superintendent, Birmingham, Ala., has been named studio director of the Birmingham Educational TV Asso-

walter M. Lifton, formerly associate professor of education, University of Illinois, Urbana, has been appointed director of guidance publications and services, Science Relications and services, Inc., Chicago, Ul.

William S. Vincent has been named executive officer of the Institute of Administrative Research, Teachers College, Columbia University, succeeding Paul R. Mort, retired.

RECENT DEATHS:

P. F. Voelker, formerly superintendent of the Michigan Department of Public Instruction and former president of Olivet College and Battle Creek College, at the age of 84.

New Testing Program

A New testing program for collegebound high-school seniors has been announced by the University of Iowa.

The new venture, called the American College Testing (ACT) program, will get underway in November with between 200 and 300 participating colleges and universities in 13 states. It is designed to help colleges determine in advance which students are qualified for admission.

The testing program will compete with the long-established but often criticized College Entrance Examination Board (CEEB), New York. These tests are prepared and scored by Educational Testing Service (ETS).

E. F. Lindquist, director of the Iowa Testing Programs, has stated that the new ACT program will be more comprehensive than the college boards, will be cheaper, and "the competition will result in an improvement of the ETS tests."

CEEB now provides the participating colleges with only two scores—mathematics and one reflecting word knowledge and reading ability. ACT, it is announced,

will give colleges four scores—English, mathematics, science, and social studies. It will also report the scores to the high school and to the student.

Ted McCarrel is general director of the new ACT program. Tests and administrative services will be provided by Science Research Associates of Chicago.

Report on Russia

REACH and over-reach America" is the leading slogan in Russia, according to the report of the first official U. S. education mission to the Soviet Union.

The report, a 135-page document entitled Soviet Commitment to Education, was released in September by the U. S. Office of Education. It covers a month tour, from May 8 to June 6, 1958, by an 11-man team, headed by Lawrence G. Derthick, U. S. Commissioner of Education.

The educators were impressed, the report states, by the national and personal sacrifices that the Russian people were willing to make for the sake of better schooling. The educators were convinced that the Russians are making those sacrifices because they consider the schools as essential in their race for world supremacy.

Copies of the report are available for 70c from the U.S. Government Printing Office.

Education Week

Praise and Appraise Your Schools" will be the theme of the 1959

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American Education Week, November 8-14.

The daily topics for the week will be: "The Child: What Does Education Mean to Him?"; "The Parents: How Can They Work for Better Schools?"; "The Teacher: What Is a Teacher?"; "The People Next Door: Who Are They?"; "The Schoolboard Member: What Are His Responsibilities?"; "The Adult Citizen: How Can the Schools Serve Them?"; and "The Voter: How Does He Make His Decisions on Education?"

National sponsors of the week are the NEA, American Legion, U. S. Office of Education, and National Congress of Parents and Teachers. Suggestions for observance of the week are available from the NEA, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington 6, D.C.

More Ford Grants

THE Ford Foundation announced this summer a second round of grants, totalling \$6,317,000, aimed at what it has termed a "breakthrough in teacher education." These grants, together with a group of grants totalling \$9,000,000 made in April, constitute a national program of teacher training in many different kinds of institutions, according to Henry T. Heald, president of the Foundation.

The institutions who will receive aid from the second round of grants are: Bucknell University, \$105,000; Central Michigan University, \$750,000; Cornell University, \$808,550; Johns Hopkins University, \$841,650; Michigan State University, \$585,000; New York University, \$825,000; University of North Carolina, \$326,500; University of Southern California, \$660,000; Vanderbilt University, \$615,300; and Wayne State University, \$800,000.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

Oct. 4-7, National Conference on School Transportation, Washington, D.C.

Oct. 6-9, National Council on Schoolhouse Construction, Kansas City, Mo.

Oct. 11-15, Association of School Business Officials of the U. S. and Canada, Miami Beach, Fla.

Oct. 23-28, NEA Department of Rural Education and County and Rural Area Superintendents, Seattle, Wash.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

Nov. 1-2, Association of Urban Universities, Buffalo, N. Y.

Nov. 3-5, National Association of Public School Adult Educators, Buffalo, N. Y.

Nov. 8-14, American Education Week.

Nov. 25-28, National Council for the Social Studies, Kansas City.

Nov. 29-Dec. 2, National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, Chicago, Ill.

Dec. 7-11, American Vocational Association, Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 11-13, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 13-17, American Association of School Administrators, Atlantic

City, N. J. Feb. 27-Mar. 2, National Association of Secondary-School Princi-

pals, Portland, Ore. Feb. 29-Mar. 3, NEA Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, Cincinnati, Ohio. Dynamics of Curriculum Improvement. Philo T. Pritzkau. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. Pp. xx + 459. \$5.95.

"The real test of the effectiveness of the curriculum is the constructive difference it makes at the level of teacher-pupil interaction," says Dr. Pritzkau in the preface to his book. In line with this concept, Dr. Pritzkau uses as the guiding principle for his discussion the idea that curriculum improvement is equated with teaching.

The volume clarifies questions and problems dealing with fear, anger, conformity, peer relationships, and directional meanings. It then shows how individual security lies in learning to live with ten-

sions. The author is director of the Curriculum Center at the University of Connecticut.

Learning and the Teacher.

Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1959. Pp. x + 222. \$3.75.

This, the 1959 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, emphasizes the teacher's task in applying what is now known about learning and in extending insights about learners in action.

Twenty-three prominent educators were members of the committee which prepared this volume. Cochairmen of the group were David H. Russell of the University of California, Berkeley, and Sybil K. Richardson of the San Fernando Valley State College, California.

Chapters in the book were prepared by various members of the

committee. Two bibliographies, one on child development and learning, the other on learning in classroom situations, are included in the appendixes.

Developing Language Skills in the Elementary School. Harry

A. Greene and Walter T. Allyn and Petty. Boston: Bacon, Inc., 1959. Pp. xiv + 513. \$6.00.

Helping children to speak, write, listen, and develop their creative expressiveness through language is

the subject of this book. Written in a nontechnical style, the book covers such subjects as: the educational philosophy behind the language program; the psychology of learning as applied to language expression; theoretical and practical approaches to the curriculum; the place of grammar and usage in the language program; language activities and methods, spelling, and vocabulary development; and the increasingly important area of listening.

Practical teaching methods and techniques and tested instructional aids are presented to help the teacher.

Mental Health and Human Relations in Education. Louis Kaplan. New York: Harper &

Brothers, 1959. Pp. xiv + 476.

\$5.00.

This book presents a philosophy of human relations for educators and a practical guide for improv ing the mental health aspects of education.

The text is divided into four parts. The first part deals with the problem of mental disorder and OCTOBER

maladjustment in the U. S. and shows how it reaches into the school. Part II discusses the environmental influences on the development of the personality. Part III describes the psychological forces of growth and the symptoms of behavior deviation in children. The final section makes practical application of these principles in the school setting.

The appendix contains an extensive listing of audio-visual aids for

instructors.

The author is currently administrator of adult education programs and lecturer in education at the University of Southern California.

The Integrated Classroom. H.

Harry Giles. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1959. Pp. xii + 338. \$5.00.

The tensions and conflicts created by America's racial, religious, and cultural differences and the ways they can be resolved is the

theme of this book.

The author, who is professor of education at New York University and founder of the Center for Human Relations Study, offers specific answers to the questions most often raised in integrating the classroom.

He includes in this book information he has obtained from the men, women, and children who have themselves been involved in actual integration of our classrooms. Teachers, principals, and superintendents from communities in 13 states are included in Dr. Giles's survey of day-to-day situations.

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED:

ELEMENTARY

Off into Space! Science for Young Space Travelers. Margaret O. Hyde. New York: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959. Pp. 64. \$2.50. De-

signed for 8-12 year olds.

Peter Tschaikowsky and the Nutcracker Ballet. Opal Wheeler. New York: E. P. Dutton & Company, Inc., 1959. Pp. 96. \$3.50. Also includes simple piano arrangements for six of Tschaikowsky's most familiar compositions.

Father to the Child. Everett S. Ostrovsky. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959. Pp. xviii + 173. \$3.75. Case studies of the experiences of a male teacher with young

children.

Your Friends in Japan; A Story about the Life of Some Children in a Village in Japan. A 16-page booklet available from the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession, 1227 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C. \$.25.

About Yourself. W. W. Bauer, et al. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1959. Pp. 288. Guidebook for Teachers, pp. 192. Book Five of the Basic Health and Safety Program.

SECONDARY

The Call of the Wild. Jack London. Edited by Mary Yost Sandrus. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1959. Pp. 189. \$2.20. One of the Easy Reading Books series for retarded readers in grades 7 to 12.

How to Study Science. Louis Haber and Lawrence Samuels. New York: College Entrance Publica-

tions, 1959. Pp. 81, \$1.00.

The Growth of America. Rebekah R. Liebman and Gertrude A. Young. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. Pp. ix + 469. \$4.68.

The Questions Girls Ask. Marjorie Vetter and Laura Vitray. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1959. Pp. 156. \$2.95.

Youth and the Future. Charles H. Carver, Harold G. Sliker, and Eliz-

abeth J. Herbert. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. Pp. xxxi + 528. \$4.64. One of the Literature in Life series, 10th grade.

Science for the Academically Talented Student in the Secondary School. A 63-page booklet available from the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C. \$.60. Discounts in quantity.

COLLEGE

How to Pass Annapolis Entrance Exams. New York: Arco Publishing Company, Inc., 1959. Pp. 216. \$3.50.

The Verdict of the Scoreboard. Ade Christenson. New York: The American Press, 1959. Pp. 190. \$3.00. A study of the values and practices underlying college athletics today.

College and University Trustee-

ship. Morton A. Rauh. Yellow Springs, Ohio: The Antioch Press, 1959. Pp. 112. \$1.00.

GENERAL

The Handbook of Private Schools. (40th Edition). Boston: Porter Sargent, 1959. Pp. 1344. \$10.00.

Our Educational Dilemma; Peace Education and Teacher Salaries. Joseph H. Garber. New York: Exposition Press, 1959. Pp. 88. \$2.75.

Dictionary of Education. (Second Edition.) Edited by Carter V. Good. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959. Pp. xxvii + 676. \$9.75. A revision of the 1945 edition, prepared under the auspices of Phi Delta Kappa.

A History of Education; A Social Interpretation. (Second Edition.) James Mulhern. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1959. Pp. vii + 754, \$7.50.

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459 pp.

Pub. 1959

Text price \$5.95

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276 pp.

Pub. 1959

Text price \$4.95



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Good Books for Children. Compiled by Mary K. Eakin. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1959. Pp. xiv + 274. \$5.95. A selection of outstanding children's books published 1948-57.

How to Get the Best Education for Your Child. Benjamin and Lillian Fine. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959. Pp. 251. \$3.95.

Action Patterns in School Desegregation: A Guidebook. Herbert Wey and John Corey. Bloomington, Ind.: Phi Delta Kappa, Inc., 1959. Pp. xxi + 276. Copies free to school superintendents. Others, \$1.50.

AUDIO-VISUALS

An Introduction to Rubber, A 53frame filmstrip prepared for use in social-studies and science classes in grades 5-9. Available free from Public Relations Department, U. S. Rubber Company, 1230 Avenue of the Americas, New York 20, N. Y.

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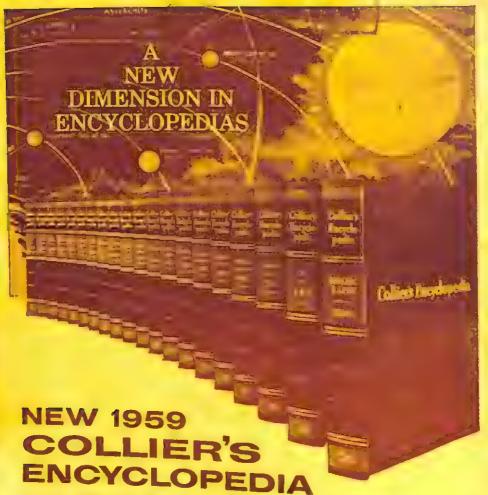
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Number 3

Moral Training—Who Will Give It?

What Can We Do about "J.D."?

VIRGINIA P. HELD

In The Reporter

HERE has probably never been a moment in history when adults were not shocked by what they regarded as an unprecedented wave of bad behavior among children and adolescents. But in our time, reports of gang warfare in the streets, teen-age muggings, and senseless killings have turned shock to cold fear. Juvenile delinquency, particularly in the United States, has come to be considered one of the most urgent social problems of the day.

A number of earnest attempts have been made to explain the causes of "J. D." Poverty, bad housing, bad neighborhoods, broken homes, and psychiatric disturbance—all have been studied by able researchers. Sometimes a particular theory has been hailed by its enthusiasts as "the" explanation, but while many specific diagnoses have been helpful, the extent and the virulence of the epidemic still

Virginia P. Held is a staff member of The Reporter magazine. Reported from The Reporter, XXI (August 20, 1959), 12-18.

seem as baffling as they are fright-

Furthermore, a number of carefully planned programs have been instituted in various parts of our country to combat the problem of juvenile delinquency. One of the most ambitious of these has been planned for New York's Lower East Side. Called "Mobilization for Youth," its purpose is to saturate the district for six years with the best that city and private agencies can offer in social-work and recreational facilities, as well as psychological, psychiatric, and welfare services. The effectiveness of this program will be carefully evaluated and the results should show pretty clearly whether juvenile delinquency can be controlled to any appreciable degree by merely increasing the kinds of services we have tried in the past—or whether they must be supplemented by some radically new approaches to the problem. Although the sponsors are convinced that programs like the "Mobilization for Youth" can do a great deal of good for a great many children whose needs are desperate, they are realistic about the difficulties they face.

While it is conceded that society must do all it can to meet desperate needs through such programs as "Mobilization for Youth," a number of thoughtful people who have worked with juvenile delinquents are coming to feel that society might do well to reexamine some of its basic assumptions about preventing delinquency.

One of the most outspoken among those who would like to see a number of changes in current thinking about the needs of children is Dr. Melitta Schmideberg. director of the Association for the Psychiatric Treatment of Offenders. This is a welfare organization to which hundreds of young offenders in the New York area are referred for treatment by the courts and by public and private social agencies. Dr. Schmideberg declares that each society must expect the crimes that are tolerated or sometimes even encouraged by popular attitudes. Punishing the few individuals who have actually committed an offense has far less effect than the way society in gen-

eral disapproves of and suppresses the very idea of a particular crime.

NO SENSE OF WRONGNESS

Perhaps, Dr. Schmideberg suggests, delinquency rates in the United States are increasing because our society does not sufficiently disapprove of the many acts of violence, brutality, theft, and destruction in which its youth indulges. She feels that many young offenders have simply never acquired a sense of the wrongness of cruelty and brutality and that what has pushed them into crime has often been not an uncontrollable impulse but simply an uncontrolled one. In sympathizing with the agony of the young offender, Dr. Schmideberg argues, we fail to realize that a growing number experience no agony at all. The attempt to provide humane treatment and psychiatric therapy for delinquents has sometimes had the unfortunate side effect of leading them to take their offense lightly.

"A 15-year-old boy came here the other day," Dr. Schmideberg told me, "with a handful of clippings that said delinquency is the fault of the parents, and that parents should talk with and try to understand their children. He said his parents didn't understand him, so it wasn't his fault that he held up a store." Another delinquent blamed his mother, saying she was impossibly neurotic: she made him straighten up his room. "One would like to simply laugh at these cases," Dr. Schmideberg said, "but one

can't, because they have unfortunately become quite typical."

Dr. Schmideberg feels that our society has allowed itself to be dominated by its children to a dangerous degree. "While the demands on the parent and teacher—to be fair, consistent, patient, and tolerant—have been increasing, the demands on the child have been lowered to such a degree he grows up without adequate conscience, self-control, or will power. He is excessively selfcentered, and takes quite reasonable restraint or reprimand as an affront."

Instead of humoring the child who is preoccupied with his own emotions and problems-as most are - Dr. Schmideberg children claims that it is the job of parents, teachers, and psychiatric workers to modify rather than increase the child's selfcenteredness. And instead of concentrating almost entirely on changing the factors that may incline a child toward delinquency-poverty, a father who drinks, aggressive impulses, and so on-we should look a bit more at how he can be brought to overcome and control his tendencies to misbehave.

PUNISHMENT APPROVED

Punishment has become highly unpopular during the last few generations. But Dr. Schmideberg thinks that since children are not born with an innate appreciation of good conduct they can acquire it through learning, and she approves, as an aid in teaching them,

"justified and moderate punishment-including spanking-by both parents and teachers."

Dr. Schmideberg is not the only person with extensive experience with young delinquents who is concerned about present attitudes toward children and adolescents in this country. Judge Peter T. Farrell is senior and administrative judge of Queens County Court in New York and handles what are known as "vouthful offenders." Judge Farrell considers himself progressive and points out that he puts as high a proportion of youngsters on probation as any other judge on his level in the city. But he objects to the idea that has developed in our society that misconduct is always abnormal and that what the law calls crime is to be explained largely in terms of causes beyond the control of the criminal. Judge Farrell's probation department operates on the assumption that though psychiatric disturbance, emotional difficulty, or economic deprivation may often contribute and sometimes be decisive in causing delinquency, poor moral training is the major factor. While he believes that it is the business of parents to teach their children to do right and avoid wrong, he finds that too many parents are unable or unwilling to do so.

That is why the probation officers in Judge Farrell's department don't hesitate to instruct a boy under their surveillance in such practical matters as how to spend his time and his money, what places and people to stay away from, and what the standards of behavior are that he is required to maintain. And always behind the probation officer's direction is the authority of the court. Eighty-five percent of the boys Judge Farrell puts on probation have no further trouble with the law, a much higher rate of success than can be claimed by most programs for youthful offenders.

Dr. Marjorie Rittwagen, staff psychiatrist for New York City's children's courts, has observed that in this era of garbled Freud, parents all too often shirk their responsibilities by supposing that little Johnny is just "expressing himself," even when he clobbers his playmate. Or they imagine that since jealousy of his sister led him to hit his friend, his behavior ought to be excused. They let their children run wild and then foist them on the schools. But the schools also have their J. D. problems and the rising level of youthful misbehavior in our schools is a matter of deep concern. Many teachers, like Emil Tron, president of the New York High School Teachers Association, believe that there must be a change from the current situation in which school children feel immune from punishment and teachers are helpless to maintain order. Mr. Tron and a growing number of teachers believe that attention and courtesy can be learned by children in the early grades and that children lack respect for authority not because they are seriously disturbed but be-

cause teachers have been prevented from using even minimal authority.

There seems to be a tendency among many adults to blame someone else for not instilling in children, before they get in trouble, the sense of values and civilized behavior they desperately need. The producers of TV programs, comics, movies, and newspaper stories which suggest that violence and brutality are acceptable and ordinary say they are only turning out what the public wants. The social workers and psychiatrists proceed on the assumption that is it not their job to meddle with cultural and ethical values-which they assume the child already possesses. And then the teachers say they are already overburdened trying to teach reading and arithmetic, and it is up to the churches and parents to take care of manners and morals. But the churches' influence, to whatever extent they actually teach children how to behave, is limited at best: a priest in an average Manhattan neighborhood estimates that less than a quarter of the children there are even remotely touched by religion. And the parents, even if they are not so overwhelmed by their own problems as not to care, are usually hard pressed to know what values they themselves respect. In sum: almost no one seems willing and able to instill, simply and directly, a basic understanding of the difference between right wrong.

Some Half-Truths and Overgeneralizations

Common Misconceptions and Delinquency

WILLIAM C. KVARACEUS and ASSOCIATES

In Delinquent Behavior: Culture and the Individual

OST people have very definite opinions on delinquency which usually purport to go directly to the "cause" or the "cure" with one deft stroke. Unfortunately, the problems of norm-violating behavior are not so simple; otherwise, delinquency would have long since ceased to be a major topic of national concern.

Presented here are some of the ideas about delinquency which are misleading or incorrect but which still persist in the folklore surrounding delinquency. Although there may be an element of truth in some notions, they are open to serious challenge as absolute or categorical statements concerning the nature and sources of delinquency.

Many people point to the working mother as a major cause of delinquency. But current studies on the negative effects of working mothers on their children are far from conclusive. This explanation is predicated on the concept of the intact middle-class family in which the mother stays home to rear her children and does not accept employment outside the home lest she neglect her young. There is no doubt about the importance of the mother-child relationship at various points of the child's life. However, the mother-child axis as the

William C. Kvaraceus, Professor of Education at Boston University, Massachusetts, was Director of the National Education Association's Juvenile Delinquency Project. Reported from Delinquent Behavior: Culture and the Individual, prepared by Dr. Kvaraceus and Walter B. Miller in collaboration with Milton L. Barron, Edward M. Daniels, Preston A. McLendon, and Benjamin A. Thompson. Published by the NEA (1959). Chaper V, 32–41.

basic determinant of behavior and personality is largely a concept that stems from an overly heavy emphasis on certain elements in psychoanalytic theory at the expense of other very important items.

Causative pronouncements and inferences concerning the broken home and delinquency are popular and, seemingly, timeless. Although the "broken-home" explanation, like the "working-mother" concept, has some utility, more precise definitions of broken homes are required and the precise effects these have in different milieus need to be determined. There is, for example, always the question of the psychologically broken home, even though both parents are living together. Labeling a child a potential

delinquent simply because he comes from a broken home or explaining away his behavior on this basis is an ever-present danger. Putting all the blame at the door of the broken home is a neat, but too easy, way out. Too often it becomes a respectable, though tricky, way of psychologically dismissing the youngster who is difficult to diagnose and who needs help that cannot be easily prescribed.

"Delinquents have a lower IQ" also is a common statement for which there is little scientific support. It appears even less valid when nonverbal and "culture-fair" tests are used. Many delinquents turn out to be extremely bright when they are viewed within the context of their own milieu.

There is a highly organized school of thought which says, "Give the boy a place to play and he won't get into trouble" and "A community with many playgrounds is a community with little delinquency." Several research projects have indicated that there is no direct or discernible relationship between the usual recreation program and delinquency rates. Unquestionably, however, a particular type of recreation program that is carefully planned and administered under certain auspices, direction, and leadership-if coordinated with other efforts-can effectively redirect or channel energies away from illegal activity into organized athletics and other leisure-time pursuits.

Parents in both lower and

middle classes frequently cite the "bad companion" as the source of their youngster's delinquency. The only difficulty here is that the parents of the alleged "bad boy" make the same claim, but of others in the group. There is also the problem of "the gang" which is labeled "bad" but whose members seldom do much more than hang around street corners or find the back way into a theater, a bowling alley, or a variety store. In many ways, this gang plays a constructive role in the socializing process for any youngster from any class.

THE GANG LEADER

The stereotype of the juvenile gang generally includes the idea of one overpowering evil-doer and a group of weak, or sheeplike, followers. This stereotype is often tied to the preventive myth which says, "If one can get to the leader, then the gang can be reached and straightened out." This kind of "Little Caesar" leadership does exist, of course, but in the typically organized gang there are usually at least three or four leaders. Depending on the particular situation, one or another member assumes primacy and makes the basic definitions but only after a great deal of interaction and discussion in which almost all members take part. The mythical figure of one evil, powerful leader "manipulating all those weak and spineless kids" does not correspond to the facts and can be classified as less than a half-truth.

Contrary to many opinions, delinquents are as healthy, if not healthier, than their nondelinquent contemporaries. A theory which has maintained its hold on the public mind is that one can recognize a delinquent by facial or body characteristics. This has little basis in fact; for example, the highly organized gang member must generally be strong, physically skillful, and mentally alert.

THE BAD SEED

The "bad seed" explanation for delinquency and crime, once so popular among researchers concerned with the blood lines of the Jukes, Kallikaks, Nams, and Zeros, never seems to fade away. There is little solid evidence for any close or direct tie-in of norm-violating behavior and hereditary components. Nevertheless, it seems likely that the theory will continue to furnish the simplest explanation of all for delinquency-and always within an aura of "scientific method." Those who want a handy explanation for delinquency can always invoke the ancestors, particularly the not-so-dear departed. But, as a matter of fact, there should be less concern with the seed and more concern with the soil and the sun which so nurture and develop these youngsters that they are enabled to accept and pattern themselves after those persons in the home, neighborhood, and community who exemplify normviolating behavior.

Slums or the deteriorated neigh-

borhood are blamed by many for delinquency. But research has pointed out that slum clearance in itself is not the answer. Hot and cold water, central heating, and fresh paint, in and of themselves, neither relate to nor automatically reduce delinquency. Attention should be directed to the inhabitants, to their relationships and culture, not to the number of rooms and the brick and mortar of their residences.

One has heard much of "idle hands." The hue and cry-like that raised for "recreation"-for change in child labor laws to allow the 14- to 17-year-olds to gain employment appears unrealistic when evidence which clearly indicates that there is little room or opportunity for them in the present labor market is taken into consideration. As a preventive, "keeping youth busy," whether through compulsory education, drafting for service in the armed forces, providing fun through recreation, or early employment, can, at best, only temporarily postpone behavior that is symptomatic of more deep-seated culturally oriented factors. Youngsters need opportunity for meaningful school-work-play activity in the maturation process. Moreover, they are quick to detect artificial "busy work" as against vital and genuine activityexperiences. Merely "keeping idle hands occupied" touches only surface symptoms and overlooks underlying factors known to generate norm-violating behavior problems.

"Let's change the law" is often heard as a cure for juvenile delinquency. There is no question that enlightened legislation provides the legal definitions of approved and protective cultural practices in our own and other countries. Nevertheless, a legislative measure will not serve as an antidote for cultural and psychological forces that tend to create norm-violating behaviors; these forces must be understood and offset through carefully planned preventive and control efforts based on valid research. There is no demonstrated relationship between "curfews" and delinquency reduction, and reliance on some quick legislative "gimmick" will not insure any long-term success in delinquency prevention or control. Carefully thought out legislation can enable the community to support and conduct more promising programs of aid for the delinquent at the local and state level. But good legislation alone is only enabling; it is not curative.

Frequent appeals for a return to more severe tactics in an effort to manage the norm-violating behavior of youngsters are heard in every community. Greater reliance on the birch rod, the night stick, and the woodshed is a perennial recommendation for a simple and straightforward solution to the "delinquency foolishness." Although some delinquents may be impervious to this technique and thus suffer no great harm, others may be only further confused and con-

founded by harsh punishment and retaliatory methods. Delinquents, as well as nondelinquents, need fair but firm treatment when they step out of bounds. They must also learn the natural consequences of their actions and that they will have to assume responsibility for them. There are effective uses of various types of punishment that may be invoked with the delinquent. However, to overlook causative factors and to capitulate to the punishment routine will neither prevent nor control further expressions of norm-violating behavior.

Delinquency is frequently regarded as a form of deviant behavior. Such a concept assumes the existence of a unitary system of institutional norms. But there are many institutional systems and, hence, many norms. The norms of the dominant middle class serve as the main vantage point (or disadvantage point) for interested and concerned lay and professional workers. Prevalent forms of normviolating behavior, seen through this window, may appear to be distortion or aberrancy; but if viewed, for example, in terms of lower-class street-corner society, the delinquency may appear as conduct that yields status and prestige-as illustrated by attitudes toward car theft and early sex experience in certain neighborhoods. Thus, in defining delinquent behavior and the forces generating it, the various norms of the different institutional systems in a community must be explored.

John Dewey: Man Ahead of His Times

STANLEY E. BALLINGER
In The Indiana Teacher

HIS year marks the end of a century which began with the birth of John Dewey, philosopher and educational theorist. For all but eight of the past 100 years, John Dewey was alive. The eminent educator died in 1952 at the age of 92."

For over 60 of these 100 years, Dr. Dewey addressed himself vigorously to the problems of men and their education. As an educational theorist he towered above his twentieth-century colleagues when one considers the number and scope of his writings, the originality and depth of his analysis, and the stimulation to critical thinking within the educational profession.

For all of his established place in the halls of philosophic and educational fame, Dewey is widely misunderstood today. Confusions and distortions of Dewey's thought have permeated the "literature of criticism" against American education in recent years. Public-school critics have shown a strong tendency to attribute many of the alleged ills of the schools to the influence of John Dewey.

It can be agreed that the schools would do well to look at their programs with an eye to some basic improvements; it is quite another matter to accept the assertion that Dewey has been responsible for

Stanley E. Ballinger is a member of the School of Education faculty, Indiana University, Bloomington. Reported from The Indiana Teacher, CIV (September 1959), 10-11, 33.

any or all of the deficiencies which the schools may have. This is not only an injustice to Dewey as an individual, but, far worse, it has deprived us of a great deal of straight thinking in education which Dewey has made and might continue to make. The situation is even more serious to the extent that teachers and school administrators share in some of the general confusion and misinterpretation of Dewey.

Especially damaging to a correct understanding of Dewey is the tendency to link Dewey with the extreme "child-centered" wing of "progressive education." This school of thought romanticized the child and emphasized an extreme degree of child freedom, selfexpression, and spontaneous activity. The underlying ideas of this brand of progressive education were not only largely contrary to Dewey's position, but he expressly took this school of thought to task for its social irresponsibility and for its lack of rigorous intellectual analysis.

Dewey has also been charged with influence on, and considerable responsibility for, much of the crass materialism and misplaced emphases in the vocational preparation of our youth. He was, in fact, a persistent critic of its dehumanizing aspects. Through some perversion of his writings, Dewey also has been charged with imposing on the schools "life adjustment education." And it has become commonplace to charge him with "anti-intellectualism," with wanting to do away with or minimize organized subject matter, with denying the importance of the intellect through his emphasis on "learning by doing."

It is true that Dewey attacked certain strains of classical rationalism for what he felt to be their isolation of thought and reason from the practical problems of man. Reflective thought is certainly one of Dewey's key emphases, but to him thought needs the test of its application to human problems to determine its worth and meaning.

DOING AND THINKING

Thinking and doing are both necessary parts of an integral act of learning. The doing part of learning, properly conceived, is a disciplined extension of an ideaforming intelligence. Apart from the doing (which may be mental, physical, or social), the idea is raw hypothesis. The doing is the projection of the idea into other contexts (including action contexts) which tests the idea and clarifies

its meanings. That doing is not, for Dewey, elevated above thinking, as he defines it, is illustrated in his assertion that theory, in the long run, is more "practical" than what most people think of as practical or practice.

As for organized subject matter, critics have noticed Dewey's proposals to organize learning activities in ways which combine and cut aeross traditional subject-matter lines, the better to direct the learner's interests and energies towards problems of real importance. What most of these critics have overlooked is Dewey's idea that as a child grows older and more intellectually mature, it is important that the learner deal with increasingly systematically-organized bodies of knowledge and intellectual skills. These systematicallyorganized subject matters, however, might undergo some transformation, considering Dewey's insistence that the problems and conditions of human welfare be kept prominent throughout the entire educative process.

DEMOCRACY NOT ANARCHY

Alleging that modern classrooms are frequently in a state of anarchy, with pupils riding roughshod over the authority of the teacher, the critics have sometimes charged that this situation stems from notions of democracy in education as propounded by John Dewey. That some teachers may have debased notions of democracy and "permissiveness" in the classroom is no

doubt true, but Dewey himself was one of the earliest educational theorists to draw a clear distinction between a *laissez-faire* situation and genuine democracy in the classroom.

One of the principles underlying Dewey's concept of democracy is shared decision-making. Even on the adult level, however, he did not see this as necessarily having everyone share equally at all points in the same way. Dewey inveighed against the teacher who, in the name of democracy, abdicates from his position of leadership. The teacher is a teacher precisely because of his greater experience, maturity, and knowledge. However, just as these qualities in the teacher do not point to autocratic leadership, even less do they point to no leadership at all. Laissez-faire permissiveness in education will have to find its justification (if at all) in something other than the writings of John Dewey.

POSITIVE CONTRIBUTIONS

The effect of less responsible (but numerous) critics of John Dewey has been two-fold. First, a variety of misconceptions about Dewey has been imposed on the public mind; and second, the misconceptions and omissions of the critics have obscured the positive contributions which Dewey has made or could make. Because so many of these positive contributions represent unfinished business for American education today, it is to the interest of all Americans that

they be neither distorted nor glossed over.

If the school of today is still taken up to any considerable extent with youngsters learning things apart from the basic problems of men to which they relate; if the pressures of the school situation seem to leave us no other choice, with respect to discipline, than laissez-faire on the one hand or domineering classroom autocracy on the other; if there seems to be no other alternative to the doctrine of interest rooted in the transient concerns of children other than a doctrine of effort backed by the threats of a taskmaster teaching; if the gap between school and community is seen as bridgeable only by a hard or soft "public relations sell"; if the decision-making process is more often autocratic than democratic; if this or something very much like it is the case-and I, for one, believe it to be-then the usefulness of John Dewey is not over. It was to these points, as well as to many others relevant to our present situation, that Dewey directed his clear-headed analysis.

It is just possible that Dewey's educational theory will be more influential in the second century after his birth than it was during the first. At any rate, the appraisal of its worth ought to be done on the basis of an accurate and adequate understanding of the full range of Dewey's thought. If the critics of public education and of Dewey can be more responsible on this matter, it will be a service to us all.

Two Points
of View

Shall We Tell Parents Their Children's IQ?

ROBERT TOPP and JOHN A. R. WILSON

In Phi Delta Kappan

"Yes," says Robert Topp

WE teachers, of necessity, are concerned only for a year or so in the lives of the young people we guide. Yet teachers feel that the information supplied by the IQ is essential information—knowledge they need to have about each child.

But up to now we have played a hush-hush game with the IQ because we wanted to protect parents from what might be bad news to them or from what they might view as good news which in itself is not. They might assume, we believed, that a low IQ means that their child is destined to failure in whatever he tries; or, conversely, that a high IQ promises success for the asking. They would be wrong, of course, in either case.

Time and again we heard ourselves saying, "Parents of bright children will become overbearing and parents of dull children ashamed." Or, "Parents who tell their children their IQ's will cause those who are high to loaf and those who are low to become discouraged and quit."

But even these frightening thoughts are not justification for keeping the IQ secret from parents. The anticipated consequences come about, if they do at all, not from knowledge of the IQ level of children but from attitudes of parents, toward this information.

This brings us to the most important argument for telling parents the IQ's of their children. Parents ought to have this information if they are to plan the future with their children. They guide their children through the "long haul." And so they should know about the potential of their children in order to plan intelligently for further education and make hundreds of other decisions that affect their children's future.

If there is a cardinal principle of mental health, it is "know thyself." Know your own (in this case, your

Robert Topp is Assistant Professor of Education at the University of California, Santa Barbara, and John A. R. Wilson is Director of Teacher Training at the same institution. Reported from Phi Delta Kappan,

XXX (June 1959), 342-46.

children's) weaknesses and strengths and accept them, governing yourself accordingly. IQ information seems to be this kind of essential knowledge, especially during the elementary- and secondary-school years.

WHAT TO TELL

We are correct, however, in assuming that if parents are told the IQ's of their children without qualifications and explanation some misinterpretations will be made. Parents can well be told, individually and in groups, that the IQ is a measure established by two or more paper-and-pencil group tests. · They can be told that for most children the IQ is relatively constant. They can be told that, in spite of the general constancy of the IO, there can be some fluctuation over the developmental years and, in rare instances, great fluctuation.

Another aspect that can be pointed out to parents is that IQ does not represent general ability, but specific abilities related to the manipulation of verbal-abstract symbols. For example, the IQ one possesses does not assure scholastic achievement but contributes to it. They can be told that other abilities and attitudes contribute to school success and are at least equally significant: seriousness of purpose, social insight, mechanical aptitude, to mention a few.

But just as we should avoid attaching too much importance to the IQ, so we should not depreciate

its significance. We could very well point out that the median IQ of college freshmen in American colleges is about 109, but to graduate from a high-grade college with average marks and normal effort, an IQ of 120 may be necessary. We could tell parents that the mean minimum of students doing average work in the high-school academic curriculum is approximately 104. We should tell them that the theoretical average IO in an unselected population is 100, but that this average increases the higher the group on the educational ladder.

When we inform parents about the IQ of their children there is no reason why we should not engage in some "directive" group and individual counseling. Just as we suggest to parents that it is unwise to compare school marks of children in the same family (or of any children for that matter) in the presence of the children, or as we admonish them not to overprotect, so we should urge them to consider the desirability of using IQ information in an appropriate way.

Parents may be told at this time that there is nothing to be gained by using IQ data as a "threat" or a "promise" to get a child to work harder or feel prouder. They may be informed that it is probably unwise to tell a child his IQ until he is old enough to understand its significance, and that this perhaps should be left to the high-school counselor to do, if he feels it wise. It may be suggested to parents that

no information of this kind needs to be shared with other adults but should be used only as valuable background for guidance.

Times have changed. Parents are more interested in the problems of

education and are more capable of understanding the many complexities involved. They want to know the facts, deserve to know the facts, and should be given the facts. IQ information may well be included.

"No," says John A. R. Wilson

O you are going to tell parents the IO of their children!

In principle, I heartily agree with the idea that parents should know the capabilities of their children. It would make it so much easier to plan for their future. After all, there is not much point in spending years of heartbreaking struggle trying to prepare for college if a young person is not capable of doing college work.

It is better to be a good ditchdigger than it is to be a poor doctor; better for the person and better for society. Conversely, is it not desirable that the bright be identified early so that they can be encouraged to work a little harder and to enable them to fulfill their promise? We need all the good minds that we can locate and develop. Why, then, is there any question about telling parents the IQ's of their children?

I think there are two good reasons. The first one is that we do not know the IQ, and the other is that, if we did know the IQ of an individual child, there is no way of communicating this information to the average parent.

I say we do not know the IQ. I shall illustrate. I have before me

the IQ scores for one class. Portraved in this array of figures is the first major dilemma of the conscientious administrator who wants to inform a parent about the ability of his son or daughter. Take Student 14. It certainly makes quite a difference to a parent whether he is informed that this child has an IO of 102 or of 130. These were the scores made by this child within a few months of each other. One was made on the Science Research Associates Primary Mental Abilities Test and the other one on the Wechsler Intelligence Scale Children.

When you decide that you are going to inform parents of the scores their children earn on intelligence tests, which test are you going to use? Are you going to explain to the parents that these scores might have been higher or lower if different tests had been used? Are you going to base your results on one test only? (To use only one test obviates many difficult decisions, of course.)

From this problem of choosing which IQ you tell the parent about, let us turn to the problem of communicating with the parent. You understand the meaning of IQ. But

everyone is not as conversant with the concept as you are. Unless you intend to report the test scores in bands such as those that the SCAT test uses, you are almost certainly going to have to explain to the parents the concept of the standard error of measurement. The IQ score is not sufficiently stable to permit you to avoid this concept, even though you avoid the name. Many teachers cannot tell what this means, even though they have recently had to pass an examination which presumed such knowledge. How do you expect the parents to understand?

So I say, if you are willing to make the necessary effort to verify the accuracy of scores by checking them against other tests and against performance, and if you have the patience and the skill to work carefully with the parent of a youngster who needs the kind of a push that this kind of information might supply, by all means go ahead. Most of you have been working on this basis with parents of the mentally retarded already. You have used individual scores to confirm teachers' judgments and group scores. You have conferred with the parents and have explained the nature of the program for the slow learner and the advantages of his being in this special class. It does

not always mean that the parent accepts your evaluation of the situation, but usually he does.

Similarly, if you are willing to go to the same lengths with the bright and average pupil, if you are aware of a real need for a course of action that is dependent on the parent understanding the level of intelligence of his child, and if you are willing to verify the teacher's judgment and the results of the group test with an individual test properly administered, then by all means go ahead. Tell the parent what he should know, but tell him in such a way that he can understand and follow up the information with action.

If you are going to give out scores of a routine group test to parents so that they can play with them at the bridge table, using the information to maim each other in subtle ways, then it would seem to be inadvisable. Remember that IQ scores are one of the most dynamic status implements obtainable. This is particularly true in certain socio-economic groups, usually the ones that would like to have the information made available. It is an implement that can damage as well as aid. Please make sure that these scores, if you make them available, are used to benefit and not to harm.

EXISTING intelligence tests are inadequate to identify the gifted, for they give high scores to children with spongetype minds but do not measure generative and explosive powers of the brain.—Lindley J. Stiles.

Illinois Court Overthrows Immunity Doctrine

LEE O. GARBER

In The Nation's Schools

HE supreme court of Illinois recently made legal history when it overthrew the doctrine of governmental immunity as applied to school districts in actions for damages for tort. In so doing, it said: ". . . we accordingly hold that school districts are liable in tort for the negligence of their agents and employes and all prior decisions to the contrary are hereby overruled."

On numerous occasions in the past, different courts have sniped at the doctrine of immunity. They have expressed their displeasure with it; and they have rendered decisions that had the effect of whittling away at it. However, no higher court has, recently at least, seen fit to go as far as this Illinois court has gone-to wipe the slate clean with one fell swoop and start all over.

Because some courts, particularly in dissenting opinions, have expressed the opinion that the doctrine of immunity has become obsolete and should, therefore, be overthrown, it is likely that this decision will motivate or encourage the higher courts of other states to take similar action. Consequently,

it may be expected that its influence will be tremendous; in fact, it may well be true that time will show that, except for the Brown case decided by the United States Supreme Court (which declared segregation illegal), this is the most important case decided during this decade or even quarter century.

This Illinois case was: Molitor Kaneland Community Unit School District, Docket No. 35249 -March 1959. The plaintiff, a minor, had brought action against the defendant school district for personal injuries that he sustained when the school bus in which he was riding left the road, allegedly as a result of the driver's negligence, hit a culvert, exploded, and burned. In his action he sought for a judgment of \$56,000. His complaint contained "no allegation of the existence of insurance or other nonpublic funds out of which judgment against defendant

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LXIV (August 1959), 70-72.

could be satisfied. Although . . . [his] abstract of the record shows that defendant school district did carry public liability insurance with limits of \$20,000 for each person injured and \$100,000 for each occurrence, plaintiff states that he purposely omitted such an allegation from his complaint."

The defendant moved to dismiss the action, contending that a school district is immune from liability for tort. This contention was sustained by the lower court, which rendered a judgment in favor of the defendant. On appeal, the appellate court affirmed the decisions of the trial court, and the case was appealed to the Illinois supreme court.

The plaintiff recognized the rule established by the higher court in 1898 to the effect that a school district is immune from tort liability, and he asked "this court either to abolish the rule in toto or to find it inapplicable to a school district, such as Kaneland, which was organized through the voluntary acts of petition and election by the voters of the district, as contrasted with a school district created nolens volens by the state."

With respect to the second of these contentions, the court held that no logical distinction could be drawn between a community unit school district, organized by petition at the request of the electors pursuant to the school code, and any other district, insofar as tort liability is concerned. It reasoned that both kinds of districts are "quasi-municipal corporations," and

the reasons for allowing or denying immunity apply equally to both.

As a result, the court was faced squarely with "the highly important question: in the light of modern developments, should a school district be immune from liability for tortiously inflicted personal injury to a pupil thereof arising out of the operation of a school bus owned and operated by said district?"

HISTORICAL VIEW

In examining this problem, the court noted that it had not reconsidered the question of tort liability for more than 50 years and that, during this period of time, the matter had been treated exhaustively by legal writers and scholars, who almost unanimously demned the immunity doctrine. The court then treated the problem historically. It noted that the doctrine of sovereign immunity of the state was first extended to a subdivision of the state in 1788 in a famous English decision. At that time, "the idea of the municipal corporate entity was still in a nebulous state." The doctrine of immunity, as voiced in this 1788 decision, was later overthrown by the English courts, and in 1890 it was definitely established that in England a school board or a school district would be treated, with respect to liability, exactly the same as a private individual or corporation. Since that time, while nonimmunity has been the rule in

England, such had not been the case in Illinois, the court observed.

Looking at the field of governmental tort liability as it has been applied in Illinois in recent years, the court noted that the general assembly had frequently indicated its dissatisfaction with the doctrine of sovereign immunity by enacting laws making governmental units liable in certain instances, citing cases involving negligent operation of fire department vehicles and nonwillful misconduct of policemen.

Thus, this court, having evaluated the various arguments favoring immunity, held that none have any true validity today, and added: "Further, we believe that abolition of such immunity may tend to decrease the frequency of schoolbus accidents by coupling the power to transport pupils with the responsibility of exercising care in the selection and supervision of the drivers." As a result, the court concluded that "the rule of school district tort immunity is unjust, unsupported by any valid reason, and has no rightful place in modern day society."

To the defendant's contention that, if immunity is to be abolished, it should be done by the legislature not by the courts, this court said: "The doctrine of school district immunity was created by this court alone. Having found that doctrine to be unsound and unjust under present conditions, we consider that we have not only the power but the duty to abolish it."

This decision again illustrates the fact that the law is not static and that the courts take cognizance of changing social conditions. It should be noted, however, that this was not a unanimous decision of the court. Two justices dissented.

As was stated earlier, this case is particularly significant because it is likely to encourage other courts to take similar action. As a result, school administrators should be aware of the fact that "change is in the wind." In the meantime, they should prepare themselves for that eventuality. One way of doing so, of course, is by taking out insurance against liability.

In those states in which the statnte does not authorize a school board to take out liability insurance, it is probable that school administrators should do their part in having legislation enacted that provides for such authorization. As more and more states take the action that has now been taken by the supreme court of Illinois, it is probable that legislatures will take action to dissipate all doubt on the matter. Some may enact laws specifically making school districts immune. Others, however, may enact legislation limiting liability to those cases in which insurance is held by the district. In still other states, the legislatures may take action limiting the amount of liability of the district in any one case. This would have the effect of putting all school districts on notice with respect to the extent and degree of their liability.

Beauty in Schools

VINCENT G. KLING

In The School Executive

NE shouldn't have to defend beauty in a school building, any more than one should have to defend beauty in a private secretary. But the fact is, life as we know it demands defenses-or at least explanations-for both. In the case of the secretary, a simple phrase like "She can type, too!" is usually enough to preserve her and the company's honor. But the beautiful school is not so easily justified. To point out that it works well, even turns out good students, is not enough to appease a skeptical public, which believes that beauty in schools is costly.

Let me say right here, that I have great respect for economy and that I do not regard it as necessarily incompatible with beauty. Let me say, also, that I believe the failure of a community or school authority to demand that its investment in a school return beauty as well as long-term utility is worse than false economy. It is a kind of dereliction of public duty.

In architecture, we speak of a

building as "making a statement." May not a beautiful school say, "Here is an important community enterprise; we care." We have schools that say this today, in terms that they are simpler, more truthful, and more eloquent-but not enough of them. It is not only fair, but unavoidable, to judge a community's respect for education (indeed, its selfrespect) by the beauty of its schools. I'm not advocating "showing off" with the school building, but I do advocate showing that one cares, not only for education, for one's children, but also for one's community.

Why should it be so difficult for a community to build a beautiful school? We might examine two of the favorite excuses given. One is that since ideas of beauty are so arbitrary and personal, you can't get a school board, let alone a community, to agree on what makes a beautiful school. The other is that

we can't afford beauty.

The fact is that a school board doesn't have to agree on its definitions of beauty; they need only agree that they want it. We hear complaints today about the diversity of esthetic standards in modern life; but our situation really isn't so different from that of past ages. No civilization is ever unanimous in its judgment of its own artistic produce; it remains for time to precipitate these works of art

Vincent G. Kling is a Philadelphia architect. Reported from The School Executive, LXXVIII (August 1959), 21-23. with universal significance. The search for beauty in terms of one's own times is full of risks—rejection. misunderstanding, failure—but it is bound to produce more in the long run than no search at all, or than a backward look.

There will always be the school directors and prominent citizens who identify beauty with antiquity and who reject "modern" architecture as categorically ugly. But even they must bow to the principle that beauty is truth, and that to attempt a Georgian school for 1500 students in this day and age is an extravagant lie.

Beauty and truth—that is the important equation. If school authorities are truthful in wanting a good education, hence a good school for their children, and if they put their program in the hands of an architect who respects truth above fashion, or vanity, or the bargain, they are bound to emerge with some kind of beauty, whether or not it be perfect and ageless art.

Notice that I equate a good education with a good and beautiful school. I have little patience with the critics of modern public school buildings who point out that some our best-educated citizens of are products of classes held in hundred-year-old basements by gas light. Individual differences being what they are, there will always be scholars and geniuses emerging from the worst conditions. Admittedly, the good teacher with a class of 12 in a substandard classroom may get better results than the me-

diocre teacher with a class of 35 in fine surroundings. But in a fair comparison, with all other conditions equal (would that they were!) there can be no disputing the advantages of the beautiful environment over the indifferent one.

To the question of whether we can afford to build quality schools, it is tempting to answer with the cliché, "Can we afford not to build them?" Either way you ask, the implication is that beauty costs something—something extra.

This brings me to a closer examination of the sources of beauty. What I mean by beauty in architecture isn't necessarily the result of embellishments, any more than it is in dress design. Indeed, embellishments can often be excesses, and excess is a common cause of ugliness. Beauty is a matter of simplifying complexities, of doing the very best with what you have, whatever the budget. Certainly it takes more time to create a thing of beauty than to produce something ordinary; and time, as we know so well, means money. But a wise investment in talent and time to do a good design will often result in lower costs in other areas. particularly in the areas of upkeep future expansion. boards who want good architecture can enjoy one of the best bargains going today, for state laws and American Institute of Architects fee standards make it possible for them to buy the best talent at pretty much the same price they pay for the run-of-the-mill.

There is a third excuse that needs debunking here. It comes from those who regard destructiveness and vandalism as vouthful instincts, and who think that a school building must be first and foremost a fortress to resist attack. I can only remind such people of an even stronger instinct of youth, and that is to follow the lead of their elders. who are generally inclined to return respect with respect and defiance with defiance. Beauty invites respect by complimenting the beholder. The greatest invitations to vouthful mischief are insensitive design (symbolized by "Keep Off the Grass" signs) and poor maintenance, which establishes an example of indifference.

I now offer some positive suggestions to those who want beautiful schools for their communities. Bearing in mind that beauty is neither accidental nor hurried, I begin with some familiar cautions. Start planning for your schools before your infants have reached the age of five. Know what you're planning for; engage expert consultants to assess your longterm needs and resources. Plan for permanence; there never vet has been a trailer that qualifies as a beautiful home, or a temporary structure that makes for a beautiful school.

Even closer to my heart is this

advice: choose your architect early wisely, and well, "Early" means before you settle on a site. Knowledge of the potentials and pitfalls of a piece of land is one of a good architect's skills. "Wiselv" means on the basis of his talent and service. Objective questionnaires about an arcitect's organization and services are a good beginning. But written testimony is a supplement to, not a substitute for, the testimony of visitation to completed buildings. I am always surprised at a school board that will commit itself to a multi-million dollar school investment without going out of its way to see the best that has already been built. Looking doesn't cost a thing but the earfare.

When you look, look for good architects, not just school architects, or established architects, or low cost per pupil. Talent, imagination, and sensitivity have the edge, in my experience, over specialization. Whatever you do, don't be misled by comparisons of square-foot costs, which are very particular sums and not barometers of anything, excepting stormy weather ahead.

Having retained the best architect you know, use him well. Don't expect magic, when realism is what you need. Support him in his pursuit of beauty and the chances are good he'll deliver it.

GE will ruin a choice steak or an egg but it has little to do with works of beauty and art.—From American Organist.

The End of an Educational Epoch

My text or thesis is essentially as follows: We have come to the end of an educational epoch and are now facing the problem of discovering new educational leadership with a completely reconstructed philosophy of education. We are in need of a new philosophy of education which represents a higher synthesis than that achieved by any of the historical or even contemporary philosophies of education.

The concluding epoch might well be called the pragmaticprogressive educational epoch epitomized largely by the educational philosophy of John Dewey and his followers and interpreters in educational and social theory and practice. Term it "pragmatic" because of the predominately influential philosophical movement which expressed itself in education in many forms whether called "progressivism," "functionalism," or "instrumentalism." Call it "progressive" because of the predominant role played by progressive education in

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In Educational Theory

its rise in the 1920's and early 30's and its demise and decline in the later 30's and following decades.

This epoch was marked by the rise of a new education and its reaction against nineteenth century conceptions of formal discipline, faculty psychology, idealistic philosophies of education with metaphysical bases, and classical conceptions of education. This new education was marked by its devotion to scientific foundations of education in place of the former metaphysical foundations, by the application of scientific method, by the emphasis on psychological, sociological, and political bases for educational theory and practice. Sharp conflict between conservative and progressive theories marked the epoch.

When I speak of the end of the pragmatic-progressive educational epoch I do not mean to use these designations as derogatory or in a tone of disparagement. We are all aware of the fact that the controversies which have centered about these movements during recent decades have made these loaded terms to say the least. Nevertheless, the contributions of this movement

have been profound in their influence on American education and culture. In my opinion the influences have been both positive and negative in their effects.

But any wholesale indictment of the pragmatic-progressive movement would seem to me to be unfair and indefensible. The issues are much too complex to be solved in an "either-or" indictment or acceptance of progressivism or conservativism, pro-pragmatism or anti-pragmatism.

Permit me, however, to make some observations in respect to the question, "What next on the educational front?"

Educational theories and practices and philosophies of education reflect underlying philosophical changes in climate and viewpoint. In this reflection there is a notable educational lag of 20 to 30 years, in my opinion. I believe that the present, new epoch, which is already burgeoning forth, represents a moving out of an era which was marked by the rise of pragmaticprogressive philosophies of education and social theory into an era which will be characterized philosophically by higher syntheses based on the principles of organic philosophy of life and reality. Whereas the past educational epoch was dominated by the pros and cons generated largely by John Dewey's naturalistic - instrumental viewpoint, the new educational epoch will be dominated by the pros and cons occasioned by an analysis of the educational and so-

cial implications of such a philosophy as that of the late Alfred North Whitehead, the philosophy of organism. Although Whitehead's general philosophy was substantially set forth in his work, Process and Reality, in 1929, and created considerable furor in philosophical circles in the 1930's, the far-reaching philosophical and educational ramifications have vet to be made known to our educational leaders. It is such a philosophy that I believe will largely answer the question, "What next?" in educational thought.

HIGHER SYNTHESIS

The new educational epoch will be characterized by the achievement of a higher synthesis of the conflicting elements and doctrines than heretofore achieved. It is perennially the task of the philosopher to reconstruct thought in such a way as to overcome paradoxes and contradictions. Dewey, for example, developed a coherent philosophy of education by his adaptation of the Hegelian triadic pattern. His constant endeavor was to achieve a unity out of familiar dichotomies of body and mind, interest and effort, and individual and society. But the new era demands another reconstruction of the familiar "either-or" choices between general and special education, cultural and vocational education, theoretical and practical, formal and functional, logical or psychological, progressive or conservative education. We are in

need of a higher synthesis of these older conflicts—a synthesis in which the elements of diversity are not sacrificed for the achievement of the principle of unity.

What is needed in the new era is the recognition and formulation of the principle of bipolarity, or the "union of opposites" whereby both of the valid elements of unity and diversity are preserved. Thus, organically, we should recognize the bipolar relations of theory and practice, the logical and psychological continuities, and the like, in the educational process. It is imperative that we grasp the organic disjunctiveness as well as the conjunctiveness of these relations.

Thus, out of the bitter conflict between the "either-or" choice of educational progressivism or educational conservatism which characterized the previous educational epoch, we should move rapidly into a higher synthesis of the valid elements of these doctrines. I believe this can be done, not merely at the level of expediency and eclecticism, but at the philosophical level where the elements can be unified through organic principles of relatedness and bipolarity.

"It should be our daring aspiration to rise above both sides of the old sterile disputes," says Charles Hartshorne in his recent book, Reality as Social Process. To me it is apparent that this is our great need in the field of education, in the broadest sense of the word "education," as we move into a new epoch. The issues and solutions of the previous epoch must be reformulated and reconstructed in such a way that we can arrive at a higher synthesis in terms of an educational philosophy. It is my belief that such reconstructions in the new educational epoch will be characterized by the flowering of educational, social, and psychological theories rooted in a philosophy of organism.

Thus it appears to this observer that we shall move from a period of educational theory dominated by pragmatic, naturalistic, and positivistic philosophies to an era in which there is an expansion and amplification of the philosophy of organism as put forth by Alexander, Whitehead, Bergson, Hartshorne, and others of organic persuasion. The movement will then be from educational theories which have been "child-centered," "communitycentered," "group-centered," "Godcentered," "culture-centered," to an educational philosophy grounded in a general philosophy which is concerned with man's relation to process and reality, beyond the limitations and parsimonies of philosophies based on older dichotomies and bifurcations.

N her first day of school, a little girl told her mother: "Mommy, you're going to have to find another playmate now that I'll be gone all day."—Florida School Bulletin.

Improvement of Mathematics Teaching in Russian Schools

IVAN D. LONDON

In School and Society

N 1957 many Americans were accepting statements regarding the superiority of Soviet secondary education in the sciences and mathematics. In the USSR, however, educators were referring—in papers and published articles—to the unsatisfactory state of affairs with respect to mathematics teaching in the Soviet secondary schools.

In April of 1957, for example, there appeared in Sovietskaia Pedagogika a decree entitled "On the State of Mathematics Teaching in the Schools and on Measures for Its Improvement." And that summer a leading methodologist in mathematics teaching read before the Collegium of the Ministry of Education of the Russian Republic a revealing paper indicating dissatisfaction. Summarized below are a few criticisms included in that paper.

". . . The state of affairs in schools throughout the Russian Republic provides evidence that the general level of mathematical knowledge of our school children is not up to the needs of our times. Despite some increase in the percentage of those passing mathematics which has taken place in recent years, the level is still not satisfactory. Failure in this subject contributes in large measure to

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the high percentage of leftbacks in school. . . ."

The paper attempts to place the blame declaring . . . "The great deficiencies in the mathematical knowledge of our school children are, on the whole, attributable to the low theoretical and methodological level of teaching of this subject in many schools. There are many schools where the teachers of mathematics do not have the requisite qualifications . . . Some teachers do not take into consideration the individual characteristics of pupils or the gaps in their knowledge, and do not show special concern for the mathematical development of those who manifest great talent in mathematics."

The paper goes on to criticize teacher preparation itself and the delay of the Russian Republic Academy of Pedagogical Sciences in determining the needed improvement in course-content in school mathematics and perfecting teaching methods.

Team Teaching in the Elementary School

ROBERT H. ANDERSON

In The Greenwich Public Schools Bulletin

NE problem of nearly all elementary-school organization in the past has been its inflexible commitment to one or the other of alternatives presumed to be mutually exclusive. You had either a "selfcontained classroom" plan or a departmentalized plan, but rarely both. You planned class groups to be either "homogeneous" (allegedly, at least) or heterogeneous, but rarely both. Either all teachers were on a deplorable salary schedule (the usual case), or on a moderately good scale, or on a truly attractive one (there are a dozen or so), but rarely has it seemed possible or wise to have several scales in effect.

The team-teaching approach to be described here is a relatively new way of organizing and utilizing instructional talents and resources. If team teaching has any lasting virtues-once adequate research has taken its full measureone of the surest will be its inherent flexibility. Here the "either-or" problems dissolve, for in most cases you may have both alternatives at will; homogeneous groups for this, heterogeneous groups for that; large classes for x, small classes for y; departmental specialization within the teaching corps as desirable, yet various guarantees against teacher-isolation and a narRobert H. Anderson is Director of Elementary School Internship and Apprentice Teaching at the Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. Reported from The Greenwich Public Schools Bulletin, III (June 1959), 1-3, 7.

row perspective; and satisfying and respectable roles and salary features for persons of moderate talent and/or experience, yet roles of special importance and high salary prestige for selected persons of remarkable competence and training.

Many "traditional" schools have already achieved some degree of flexibility in these and related respects, but for the most part the gains have been only minor. These schools are looking with interest at the current efforts of certain communities to establish teams of teachers. Perhaps the most notable demonstration of this approach is taking place in Lexington, Massachusetts. In the Franklin School at Lexington, a total of 18 classroom teachers recently completed the second year of teaching within teams.

Since Lexington, regrettably, has no kindergarten program, the children in the first grade are having their first public-school experience.

This factor, plus the natural caution teachers usually feel about sixvear-old children, led in beginning to a rather conservative approach to team teaching with the first graders. However, the four teachers who worked with last vear's group of 108 pupils came increasingly to use large-group lessons and intrateam redeployment of youngsters. And there is a strong resolve to be less conservative in the current year. Even the tender six-vear-old, it is claimed, enjoys and profits from working with several teachers and a large number of fellow pupils under a constant variety of environmental conditions.

Whereas Team Alpha grade) has one team leader and three "regular" teachers, Team Beta (grades 2, 3) has a team leader (significant salary differential), a senior teacher (moderate salary differential), and four "regular" teachers. Within this hierarchy, the team leader carries major leadership responsibility and gives general direction to the planning, teaching, and evaluation work of the total team. The senior teacher plays an intermediate role of leadership. Grades 4, 5, and 6 are organized into a third team. Omega, with a total of eight teachers. Here the team leader is assisted by two senior teachers, and there are five "regular" teachers.

Because of structure space limitations (the school is of standard design) and perhaps also because of the long-standing habits of everv-

one concerned, a fairly large proportion of all instruction has continued to take place in groups of 23-28 voungsters. Some of this has involved the "homeroom" group, while there has also been a great deal of exchanging children from classroom to classroom in order to bring together pupils of equivalent achievement, or with common interests.

LARGE-GROUP LESSONS

But the use of large-group lessons has also marked a substantial proportion, perhaps a fourth or a fifth, of the daily schedule. One goal of this Franklin School Project is to ascertain which subjects and which kinds of lessons may be taught as well (or better) to large (e.g., 75 to 150) groups of children. Thus far, it seems that material well suited to demonstrations or lecture-type presentations, such as in science, is particularly appropriate for large groups.

Whenever a large number of children are being taught by a single teacher, who presumably has a special background in that subject, it becomes possible for the remaining teachers to engage in several activities: help with the largegroup lesson; work with a small number of children in remedial activities; engage in lesson planning, parent-teacher conferences, Thus the entire staff finds it possible within the teaching day to accomplish a number of things that are difficult for the teachers in the selfcontained classrooms to do.

This is not to say that the work day is any easier for the team teacher, however, because there must necessarily be a greater amount of time devoted daily and weekly to team meetings, joint planning, and similar duties.

For the voungsters, there are certain presumed advantages and also, probably, some disadvantages in team teaching. Among the benefits, it has been hypothesized that instruction may be more stimulating when each lesson is taught by the team member whose greater relative strength is in that subject. It is also believed that the frequent regrouping of children, to meet specific needs and interests in all areas, will be to the child's advantage. The opportunity to know and work with a greater number and variety of teachers and fellow pupils is also believed to have potential intellectual and social values.

On the negative side, it was originally suspected that some children might get "lost" in the large social groups, that some would find it difficult to tolerate the frequent changing of class groups and classrooms, and that some might forfeit the "security" that is alleged to result from the typical 1-25 pupil-teacher ratio in the selfcontained classroom. Thus far, none of these suspicions has been substantiated in actual experience. While there are a few children who do express or manifest such feelings, their proportion is very much smaller than had been expected. Furthermore, the overwhelming weight of opinion as expressed by both children and their parents is enthusiastic. Typical comment is that the larger number of friends, the interesting changes in activities and locations, and the opportunity to study under many different personalities are good things. Teachers' and observers' reports to date are similarly positive with regard to these factors.

It has never been claimed or expected that the team-teaching approach would be more economical than standard arrangements. One of the greater costs is the extra salary beyond normal compensation for those outstanding teachers who will perform in the roles of team leader and senior teacher. Team teaching also requires adequate secretarial support to relieve teachers of numerous nonprofessional tasks. Another important step in team teaching must be the creation of radically different buildings-in which classrooms will vary substantially in size and purposeto house the new program. My guess is that these will cost about 10 percent more than "standard" obsolete buildings, although an ingenious acoustical invention could conceivably reverse the cost picture.

More time is needed to assess the efficiency, the cost, and the feasibility of team teaching before any broad-scale application is made in America. Optimism is the prevailing mood, however, and it seems likely, as the popular song goes, "There'll be some changes made!"

The Teacher Makes the Difference

Julia Weber Gordon

In NEA Journal

HEN all the arguments about grouping are over, and the pupils have been grouped in one way or another, it is, in the end, the day-to-day influence of the teacher that matters. Teachers need to be aware of their own behavior with children. This behavior is important in the light of what we know about the way children learn and the way they develop.

Two concepts in particular are important here:

1. Children learn what they are motivated to learn.

2. In the presence of other human beings, children learn to be the human beings they are.

Motivating a child to learn is not a superficial process. The compel-

ing motivations lie deep within the child—they reside in his concept of himself, in the way he thinks and the way he feels about himself. Whatever he does, whatever he seeks to learn—or to avoid learning—is ultimately related to enhancing his concept of himself or defending his concept of himself from attack and destruction. The goals toward which human beings strive most intensively are these: to be accepted, to be approved, to be able to stand alone as a self.

The child who persistently seeks attention in the classroom is indicating that he has a deep-seated need to accomplish one or another of these goals. And the teacher who ignores or rebuffs behavior of this kind unintentionally increases the child's problem and causes him to seek attention even more avidly—perhaps from other sources.

It makes a difference in what a child learns, then, whether or not his teacher understands and helps him satisfy his deep-felt need. He will learn the most from whomever gives him feelings of worth, acceptance, approval, achievement.

Let us consider Jim, a fourthgrader, who had been doing poorly in school ever since his father died the year before. His performance on the intelligence and achieve-

Julia Weber Gordon is Director of the Office of Child and Youth Study of the New Jersey Department of Education, Trenton. Reported from NEA Journal, XLVIII (September 1959), 27–28. ment tests showed regression. In addition, he was hostile and aggressive toward adults and peers. Data indicated that outside of school his life was now directed entirely by women. In simple projective tests, and in his conversations with his teacher and others, there was a recurring pattern. He showed that he wished he were old enough to be in the seventh-grade class, which was taught by Mr. Wilson. Sociometric data indicated that he repeatedly ignored or rejected his peers and chose Mr. Wilson as his only friend.

Arrangements were made to place Jim in Mr. Wilson's room. For months Mr. Wilson helped him with his school work, and Jim again became a good student. The older boys in the grade lent a helping hand, too, especially by showing him how to improve his pitching and catching. This teacher and these older male companions together provided Jim with the milieu he seemed to need in order to work through his problem.

In the spring, when several classes were out on the playground, Jim told Mr. Wilson that he was going over "to see what the other kids are doing." He had a good time that day playing ball with his former classmates and he continued to play with them daily in the next few weeks. Then one day he said, "Mr. Wilson, would it make you feel bad if I told you I would like to go back to my own class now?"

Mr. Wilson replied, "Jim, would it make you feel bad if I told you

I am delighted?" They both burst out laughing.

ESTABLISHING NORMS

In order for children to think and act in ways we believe desirable, they must live with human beings who will make it possible for them to develop the concepts of themselves and others that will lead them to behave in these ways. The social group must contain within it—and must practice—the norms we wish to establish.

Mrs. Amey, a principal and eighth-grade teacher in a small understood rural school. truths. She had as a pupil a new boy, 14-year-old Lloyd, a very intelligent and well-informed boy of studious habits. His father was a lawyer and Mrs. Amey learned that his parents had been worried that he might not learn all he could in this rural school and that they had tried to get him admitted to the regional high school. Lloyd's first setback came when he was sorely disappointed that he had not been elected class president. He said he knew that he was "by far the most highly qualified" of all his classmates. And he also had been quite vocal about the president the children had elected, saying he would "never make it."

But losing the election stirred this boy to begin a study of the presidents of the United States to see what qualities they had and how these qualities influenced the decisions they made. Mrs. Amey was involved in this project. It was she who suggested that he limit his study to six of the presidents and she also helped him set up a plan of organization of his findings.

From time to time Jim discussed with the others what he was learning. The children began to find his suggestions in class meetings more and more helpful, especially in setting up roles of conduct for themselves. As for Lloyd, he gradually became a better listener to what the other children had to say. And, in conferences with Lloyd's parents, Mrs. Amey learned that Lloyd had admitted to his mother that the children had been wiser than he had thought in their choice of a class president and that by observing the other boy he had learned a lot about how to treat people.

Lloyd, intelligent and sensitive, was not only accumulating knowledge but he was learning in the presence of his family, his teacher, and the other children, to use his knowledge, to develop wisdom as well. But the teacher was the key.

In our democracy, public schools were established to help realize the American dream of a nation where every individual would have the opportunity to fulfill his potentialities. Attendance was made compulsory so that every child might develop into a citizen capable of making decisions affecting the welfare of all.

When we consider these facts we come to understand that, as teachers, we must be constantly aware of what we do, so that we do not align ourselves with forces that unwittingly tend to destroy rather than to promote these democratic ideals. Instead of our present preoccupation with separating, classifying, and categorizing human beings, we need to examine what we believe about children growing up in our society. We need to study the relationship between what we do and the consequent behavior we desire in children.

There are no magic formulas. The teaching-learning process is to-day what it has always been—a human relationship. Today, as always, the young and eager look to those they consider older and wiser. In the end, it's the teacher who makes the difference.

- There is a story they tell of Winston Churchill when he was a boy at Harrow School. One day the teacher of mathematics, in despair at the stupidity of his class, wrung his hands and cried out to his pupils, "Oh, boys, boys, what shall I do with you?" "Please, sir," piped up the voice of a small cherubic-looking boy—young Churchill, "please, sir, teach us!"—Arthur Bryant in Scholastic Teacher.
- FOR each pupil with a spark of genius, there are ten with ignition trouble.—From Mississippi Educational Advance.

Yale without "Whiffen poof" and Maine without "Stein"?

Do College Students Drink Too Much?

BYRON H. ATKINSON and A. T. BRUGGER

In The Journal of Higher Education

Car Smashup after College Drinking Party" and "Drunken Fraternity Party Brings Police" are altogether too familiar. They merely confirm the belief of many newspaper readers that all undergraduates drink, that they drink too much, and that little good comes of their drinking. In private, most college officials will readily admit that drinking is a problem on the American campus.

The stereotype of the harddrinking undergraduate has been widely accepted. It fits nicely into the folklore surrounding higher education. Every university has a drinking song, and is frequently known by it. Yale without "Whiffenpoof" and Maine without "Stein" are inconceivable. Some of the most popular writers of our time have created an enduring illusion of college revelry. F. Scott Fitzgerald's preoccupation with drink is second only to his preoccupation with sex. To learn to hold's one liquor well is part of the fictional Americana of "growing up."

Modern student customs, however, have not been fashioned by headlines, novels, and legends, but by an age-old tradition. Drunkenness and rioting by students have been a part of student life since

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the Middle Ages. We find no American equivalent for all of this. But you might ask about the huge "panty-raid" two years ago at Berkeley, the bloody "Trolley March" at Brown in the 20's, or the "gang-war" between Occidental and Pomona students in the 30's. These, it is true, appear to be somewhat subdued copies of the medieval student brawl. There is one important difference. Liquor and drunkenness, usually prime cause of such behavior 500 years ago, play a very small part in the present-day version.

Indeed, nothing in American college drinking, whether traditional or contemporary, quite matches the European pattern. Nevertheless, in America, drinking has always been a part of college life. Even the piety of the nineteenth century did not diminish the bibulous propensities of the undergraduate. Yale sophomores had their rum flips; Quaker students at Hav-

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erford smuggled sherry into their quarters. The spirited South was known for rigid rules and stout thirsts. The flavor of the times is perhaps best captured in the diary of William Hammond, a student at Amherst. With a number of companions he turned a temperance lecture into a "jolly row"; and when a close friend was about to be expelled for going on a spree, Hammond, who sounds remarkably like a member of the Class of 1960, peevishly observed that "here as everywhere else, men are punished, not for sinning, but for being found

Today drinking continues to vex many a faculty and college president, and often it has been uppermost in the minds of a large—and influential—part of the public. The problem has been the subject for a number of studies.

We do have some statistics. We have been told, for example, that the highest statistical incidence of drinking occurs among men in private, nonsectarian, men's colleges, and the lowest incidence is to be found among women in public coeducational, southern, Negro colleges. One generalization nearly always holds true. Sectarian colleges-those campuses representing the older religions, such as the Jewish, the Catholic, and the Episcopalian-tend to seek and to follow a policy of temperance whereas the younger Protestant churches try to maintain a policy of total abstinence. We know, too, that family income and economic

status have an influence on drinking. Apparently, the higher the family income the more likely it is that the student will drink. It has also been shown that geographic location, ethnic differences, degree of maturity in college, and parental drinking habits all have their places in the kaleidoscope. But all of these findings warn against the acceptance of a stereotype of the college student. It may be said that our students' drinking habits are shaped by family background, religious taboos, and contemporary local standards. In our student society, as in our adult society, drinking, when not an abuse, is a social custom.

What do students themselves think about their drinking habits? Our experience is that the undergraduate of the 50's seems not to share the callow admiration of the undergraduate of the 20's for the "interesting drinker." The pale, Byronic drunk, almost an obsession among the young post-bellum literati of the 20's, finds no counterpart in the modern college or university setting. American college students do not count themselves among the "beat generation" or the "angry young men," although they may follow these phenomenons with amused interest. The total abstainer, even on a "moderation" campus is usually respected for his opinions. At an earlier time he might have been an object of ridicule.

This change of attitude may stem from the fact that the drinking habits of modern students do not seem to be based on psychological insecurity, either real or fancied. While the "lost generation" of students drank and wallowed in selfpity, our modern undergraduate, if worried or insecure, seems much more apt to seek group security through an evangelical movement or psychotherapy. When he drinks, it is usually not for surcease, nor under group pressures, but for the same reason his adult counterpart does-conviviality, relaxation, and the removal of inhibition.

If he has an ideal in drinking habits, it is not the heavy drinker, the "interesting drinker," or the drinker who creates problems for himself or his group by his drinking. It is rather the ideal of sophisticated maturity in drinking which he admires-the man who discourses easily on the "right" drinks at the "right" time, and who uses alcohol as a social ladder and not as a padded club.

Inevitably we come to the problem: What should college administration do about all this? Most parents and community leaders continue to believe firmly that college administrators-and the policies they espouse-not only play a part in developing or hardening student attitudes toward drinking but may, in fact, mold them. The traditional problem of the administrator is that, if lenient, he will get his lumps from the community; if inflexible, he will receive the same lumps from the student body.

If he follows a middle-of-the-road policy, he is sure not only to draw fire from both sides, but also to be accused by everyone within sight or hearing of being a contemptible, temporizing compromiser. Is a policy of "straightforward hypocrisy" better or worse than a policy which forbids student drinking of any kind, which is rigorously enforced and which inevitably results in the suspension or dismissal of those guilty of violat-

ing its regulations?

Colleges and universities bear more responsibility than any other social group for the behavior of the young men and women who are on their campuses. But most of the influences which mold and motivate these young people do not come from the colleges and universities. Like the public school, they provide the largest and least dangerous target. Many college officers throughout the country have developed a live-and-let-live attitude. They try to avoid problems, to strengthen student government, and, above all, to evade public notice. They have come to know that there is no formula, and that that policy is best which works at a given place, with given students, and at a given point in time. Perhaps the best policy was stated some 150 years ago, when the authorities at William and Mary ordained "that the drinking spirituous liquors (except in that moderation which becomes a prudent and industrious student) be prohibited."

Jumps, Regression, and Return Sweep

Eye Movements in Reading

MILES A. TINKER

In Education

HAT role do eye movements play in reading? It is obvious that the eyes move when one reads. But just how these movements take place is not selfevident. It would be useful to parents and teachers to know more about the basic characteristics of eye movements and how the patterns of these movements reflect degrees of proficiency in reading.

It is a popular belief that during reading the eyes move steadily and uninterruptedly along the line of print. Observation, however, will demonstrate that they move in "jumps" rather than in continuous sweeps. In reading, the eyes make several stops, each a fixation pause along a line of print. The first fixation pause is located near the left end of the line of print. The eyes then move in a series of fixations along the line from left to right. If the eyes have made too long a "jump" for adequate perception of the successive words, or if some of the material needs reexamination to achieve better understanding, the eves make a backward move toward the left to get another view of the words or for a more detailed examination of the printed material. This backward move to refixate words is called a regression. When the eyes reach the right end of the line, they make a long

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"jump" back to the beginning of the next line. This is called the return sweep.

Eye-movement behavior is of significance to the teacher for it provides external signs of the internal working of the mind during reading. The reader who makes the fewest and briefest fixation pauses is the more efficient reader. Consistent progress from left to right with few fixation pauses along the line of print is ordinarily an indication of a clear understanding and a rapid grasping of the material read. On the other hand, many fixation pauses with frequent regressions tend to reveal poor comprehension with slow, laborious, and inadequate grasping of the meanings and ideas represented by the printed material. Repeated fixation pauses and regressions clustered about a word or phrase ordinarily indicate mental confusion of the reader with an inability to grasp the meaning of that word in relation to the rest of the sentence.

The nature of the eye-movement patterns (number and spacing of fixation pauses and regressions), therefore, reveal quite well how the mind operates in trying to understand and grasp meanings during reading. Thus it is important that the teacher understand these relationships between eye movements and the reading process.

In the beginning, the proper direction of eye movements in reading must be learned by the child. Obviously the eyes should begin at the left end of a line of print and move in a series of fixation pauses consistently to the right.

But it is erroneous to assume that this orientation comes naturally. The child on entering school has been accustomed to use his eves only for examining pictures or other objects of various kinds. His eves move to the left just as readily as to the right. On first contact with the reading situation, therefore, the eve movements of the child may be described as merely a looking at or an examining of the words. After some experience in reading, although still near the beginning of the first grade, the child's eve movements are characterized by many fixation pauses per line of print, by fixation pauses of relatively long duration, and by frequent regressions. Improvement comes with reading experience. Studies have shown that the average child achieves fairly stable evemovement habits by the end of the fourth or sometime during the fifth grade. There is, however, a slower rate of improvement from the fifth grade level to adult level.

It would seem that progress in the development of efficient eye movements reflects, in some degree, practice in reading instruction in the grades. Rapid progress is made as long as marked emphasis is being placed on the teaching of reading and slower progress when the emphasis is shifted to other subject matter. Probably a faster rate of progress in the upper grades would be maintained if more emphasis were given to reading instruction at those levels.

Where precision in measurement of eve-movements is desired, as in research investigations or in a reading clinic, a photographic technique is ordinarily used (or an elaborate electrical method.) Research studies, employing these techniques, have provided a wealth of information about eye movements in reading and consequently about how children learn to read and information concerning their difficulties in trying to read.

PEEP-HOLE METHOD

But the teacher herself can make a direct observation of eye movements by means of the "peep-hole" method. Proceed as follows: On a 9" x 12" cardboard, attach two paragraphs of 6 to 10 lines of reading material of appropriate difficulty, one paragraph just above the center of the card and the other just below the center. In the middle of the cardboard cut a small hole "4" to "8" in diameter. Hold the cardboard at the proper reading distance directly in front of a pupil

and place your eye immediately behind the opening. You now have the most advantageous viewpoint from which to see the successive movements and fixation pauses of one of the pupil's eves as he reads the material on the cardboard. The movements are seen most easily when you fixate your attention on the dividing line between the colored zone and the white of the pupil's eve. The fact that the pupil sees only the reading material before him reduces the distraction that would occur if you were to attempt direct observation (as looking over the top of a book) without concealing your face behind the card.

This method may be used to determine the number of fixation pauses per line of print, to detect the presence of regressions and confusions shown by detailed examination of a word or phrase. The pauses per paragraph may be counted and then divided by the number of lines. The teacher should practice counting the eve movements of another teacher for a few paragraphs before working with the children. A fair degree of accuracy may be achieved with practice even though some eve movements will be missed. This technique is quite satisfactory in the classroom where the teacher wishes to detect signs of very good and very poor reading in comparison with the average, or wishes to find out what the eye movements of a particular pupil are like.

Surveys and work in reading

clinics have shown the outstanding principle concerning eve movements in reading is that they reflect quite accurately the clarity of perception and comprehension taking place in the mind of the reader. Understanding this, the classroom teacher can make good use of her knowledge about the reading movements of the eves: (1) She can emphasize the development of the essential left-to-right movements along the line of print when the child is beginning to read. (2) She will know how to use direct observation by the method described of the reader's eves as an aid in diagnosing reading difficulties. (3) She must appreciate the fact that although eve-movement patterns are good diagnostic signs of reading disability, specific training of eye movements is ordinarily not necessary to bring about improvement in reading. More efficient eye movements automatically appear as the reading is improved by other approved methods. If the efficient teacher understands the nature of eve movements in reading, she can use this information to advantage.

The study of eye movements in reading is for the most part, of course, a research technique. The information gained through experimentation has helped us to understand the reading process. But contrary to the views of some writers, nothing in the research findings suggests that eye movements as such should be paced or trained to improve reading proficiency.

Federal Funds Can Enhance Local Initiative and Control

Federal Policy and the National Interest in Education

In National Policy and the Financing of the Public Schools

AR-REACHING improvement in the quality of education, an essential to the national interest, cannot be achieved without improvement in the financing of the schools. The deficit in educational financing varies from place to place, but it exists to some extent even in wealthier states.

To meet the deficit there must be a massive infusion of funds in support of public education. The present tax structure makes it improbable, and in some areas impossible, that the states and localities will meet this need without significant federal help. Nor is it reasonable or just that some states and localities, despite exceptional tax effort, are unable to approach satisfactory school standards. provements in state and local financing of education cannot be expected to occur rapidly or uniformly, and it is doubtful that, even at the optimum, they would meet all needs.

Therefore, in the light of the responsibilities of American education, the tax structure of the nation, and the needs facing the schools, the federal government should participate in the general financing of public schools.

The operation of a national industrial economy appears to ensure Reported from National Policy and the Financing of the Public Schools, published by the Educational Policies Commission (1959), 23-25.

that average per-capita incomes will be unequal among the states. The disparity between the states in residual income (which is a significant index of ability to pay) is about five-to-one, taking the averages of the eight richest and eight poorest states. It is about sixteento-one between the single richest and single poorest state. The poorest states, if left to their own resources, have no reasonable prospect of raising the funds to provide adequate education. Some form of equalization is needed.

The financing of education exclusively at the state and local levels has the effect of assigning to owners of real property a disproportionate share of the burden and of fixing tax obligations with insufficient attention to ability to pay. Since existing patterns of state and local taxation, even in the wealthiest states, are less responsive to changes in personal income than are federal patterns of taxation, exclusive reliance on state or local sources condemns the schools to an inflexible and inadequate tax base.

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Therefore, important as the principle of equalization is, it ought not to be the exclusive guide in formulating national policy. Provisions for federal support of education in the states and localities should combine grants for wealthier states with provision for additional aid for the poorest.

Federal funds can be distributed to states in such a way as to preserve the educational control which states have traditionally exercised or delegated to local governments. Initiative and control imply freedom of choice. But lack of money limits that freedom in most American school systems today. Too often the schools must choose not the best alternatives but the cheapest. Federal funds, by reducing the obstacles to local freedom, can enhance local initiative and control.

There should be as few restrictions as possible on the manner in which states handle federal educational funds. Aside from the essential provisions for audit and assurance that the funds will be spent on public schools, no limits should be placed on state or local initiative. There should be specific prohibition of interference by federal officers in the right of a state to determine its school program.

Responsibilities at the federal level must be carefully and precisely defined. The legislative branch should appropriate needed sums and should define policies to guide federal administrators. There must be a well-staffed and efficient agency to supply to Congress and

executive officials reliable data on the needs and operations of public schools in the states and localities.

Much is at stake in the public schools today. Their traditional role has been to give reality to the American promise of free government and equal opportunity. To this task modern conditions have added portentous burdens. The prosperity, security, and very survival of the nation are staked, in the long run, on the public schools.

These are national tasks, their accomplishment a national affair. Yet, alone of all the vital national concerns, education is not recognized as an obligation in which the national government must carry a significant share.

The choice now before the American people must be faced and resolutely made. The inadequacies of the schools' financial base are fully apparent. They must be overcome. This problem will not yield easily or simply. The decisions will be hard. But the times are hard.

Perhaps the most disturbing characteristic of these times is the persistence with which problems involving survival arise. Such problems may be inevitable in an age of nuclear power and space exploration. None of these problems, however, is of greater seriousness or intricacy than the challenge of developing an adequate base for American public education. By their response to this challenge, the American people will fix the conditions under which all other challenges will be met.

A Functional Approach

Modern Foreign Languages in the Secondary School

In The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

This is a report of the 1958-59 major project of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development. Reported from The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XLIII (September 1959), 1-14.

WE live in a time when events anywhere in the world can produce immediate and profound repercussions on our everyday life. Decisions in this country involving other world areas are commonplace. It is commonplace, also, for an individual from any part of our country to find himself dealing with non-English speaking peoples. In the world of today some experience with another modern language and understanding of another modern culture have become ex-

tremely important.

These are conditions well known to our educators. One result has been the increased attention being given to the study of modern foreign languages. All indications now point to a renaissance of language teaching and language learning in our secondary schools. This does not mean more of the same kind of traditional emphasis that has characterized a good deal of modern language instruction for years. It does mean modern languages taught and learned with beginning emphasis on communication rather than on grammatical structure.

There is nothing extremely difficult in learning to speak a modern foreign language. As a matter of fact, this is the natural way children learn their native tongue. It is when we begin a study of language by examining structure and memorizing conjugations that it becomes formal and tough for many students. Results have shown that the bookish study of modern language has been ineffective in enabling students to speak a language

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with any real degree of proficiency.

The kind of modern language study advocated by the NASSP's Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development differs in objectives and methods from that which has been traditional in many schools. It aims to give the student direct experience with language as a means of communication. Its outcomes are the ability to understand the standard spoken language on subjects within the student's experience, to speak within these same limits, to read without translation, and to write what can be spoken. In method, it uses the aural-oral approach with training of the ear as the first step and with grammar learned through mastery of speech patterns.

SIX CHARACTERISTICS

Six points characterize the functional approach to modern foreign-language study: What is done in the class (1) about English, (2) about translation, (3) about grammar, (4) about books, (5) about tests, and (6) about laboratory practice.

1. About English. — After initial orientation in English, the modern foreign language should be the language of the classroom. English should be made temporarily inactive so the student may learn to think in the new language.

 About Translation. — Formal translation from English into the modern foreign language, or the reverse, should be avoided in the first two years of language learning and should be used only as a literary exercise in the more advanced stages, usually not earlier than the third year, and then only as a small part of the student's activity.

3. About Grammar. — The control of grammar should be acquired initially by imitation and repetition in using the modern foreign language in natural situations and not by formal analysis. For example, as a child learns his native tongue, he uses more analogy than analysis; so does the student who learns to speak a modern foreign language. A study of formal grammar can be undertaken by advanced students after they have acquired some proficiency in hearing and speaking.

4. About Books. — Language is first of all something you say and only secondarily what is written in books. The ability to comprehend the written word is more thoroughly developed if adequate time has first been spent on learning to hear and speak the language. When these primary skills have become automatic in informal discussion, reading and writing can begin to play an important role in language behavior.

5. About Tests. — Teaching and testing tend to become indistinguishable elements in functional language teaching. Emphasis in testing during the early stages of language learning should be on listening comprehension and speaking ability. When this emphasis is achieved, testing evaluates performance and reinforces teaching.

6. About Laboratory Practice. — Language laboratory apparatus can activate the functional method in modern language instruction. Tape recorders, head phones, microphones, and listening stations are basic equipment in a language laboratory. It is possible to spend a lot of money on a fully equipped laboratory, but it is also possible to provide the major elements at small cost.

OPEN TO ALL

We believe that the election of modern-language study should be open to all interested students. We urge principals, guidance counselors, and teachers to encourage students to select modern language study. We recommend that students be given the opportunity to begin such study no later than grade 9, and we encourage schools that can do so to initiate modernlanguage study in grades 7 or 8.

Acquiring a proficiency in modern foreign language requires a longer sequence than the two years of modern language study now offered in many secondary schools. Even a three-year sequence can hardly be expected to produce adequate results. But if this is the most a school can offer, we suggest that a three-year sequence for all students electing a modern foreign language should be offered in grades 10, 11, and 12.

And we earnestly recommend that a minimum of four years of sequential study of modern foreign language be available to students.

as long as such study is profitable to them, even though classes may be small or individual study and practice may be necessary.

In small schools, we believe it is better to concentrate on a three-year or four-year sequence in a single language rather than on a shorter sequence in more than one. And we recommend that, when conditions make it possible, students exceptionally proficient in language be encouraged by principals and counselors to elect the study of a second modern foreign language while continuing the first.

The functional method of teaching modern foreign languages should yield significant results in proportion to time spent. In the first two years of a four-year to six-year sequence, progress in listening comprehension and speaking can be rapid. The third year can then result in progress in reading, writing, and habits of good usage. The final years, with emphasis on oral skills still maintained, can accomplish progress in further literary and cultural understandings.

OUTCOMES

The following outcomes may be expected of a four-year to six-year sequence of study in a modern foreign language:

1. Motivation

A better opportunity for student motivation when they actively learn to hear and speak a modern foreign language from the outset.

Listening Comprehension
 Ability to understand a native

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speaker talking at normal speed about a subject within the student's language experience.

3. Speaking Ability

Ability to speak correctly and with good pronunciation on a subject within the student's experience in the modern foreign language.

4. Reading Ability

Ability to read with direct understanding—that is, without the ritual of translation—anything within the range of what the student has learned to understand and say, and, in addition, ability to read more difficult materials with the aid of a dictionary.

5. Writing Ability

Ability to write correctly whatever he can say.

6. Knowledge of Structure

Ability to conform to good usage in speaking and writing.

ANY LANGUAGE USEFUL

We believe that able and interested secondary-school youth should be given the opportunity to study the modern foreign language they wish to study, but we also believe that a student should not forego the study of any modern foreign language because the one wishes to study is not available to him. We believe that when language study is functional and the student is able to achieve proficiency, the manner of learning one language usually carries over to learning another. Any modern language well learned will be useful.

Nowadays, Spanish, French, German, and Italian, in that order,

are the modern languages most widely offered in our high schools. But our national need to talk the language of our most populous and important world neighbors suggests that, in addition to these most commonly offered, we should consider the possibility of teaching Russian. The study of Russian may be as urgent as the study of any Western European language. We agree that the colleges and universities have the major stake in teaching Russian, Chinese, Japanese, Arabic, and Hindu-Urdu. However, some large secondary schools with large enrolments have been able to find competent teachers and have introduced the study of Russian language. The national need for proficiency in Russian is acute and deserves high priority. But unless competent teachers, continuity in program, and appropriate instructional materials can be secured, it makes no more sense for schools to initiate a study of Russian than to do so in any other language.

To advise able and interested students on what and how much of a modern foreign language to study is a responsibility of principals, guidance counselors, and teachers. The advice must be perceptive and individual. We are convinced of the essential importance and value of functional m o dern-language study, but we recognize that it should be elective. Once it is elected, and success demonstrated, the student should be urged to continue the prescribed sequence of study in modern foreign language.

Educational and Entertaining for Everyone

"Show-and-Tell"

GLENDA WOODS and FRANCES TYRRELL GATHRIGHT

In The Texas Outlook

Joungsters of preschool age have a knack for finding all sorts of fascinating objects, after which comes an immediate search for mother to share in the exciting discovery. Perhaps it's a bright flower, an old dog bone, or a wriggling worm. Whatever it is, showing the object to another person and telling about its discovery is more than half the joy.

When the child reaches school age, this natural inquisitiveness, this eagerness to discover the "how and why" of the world, can be guided into an activity of real educational benefit. As youngsters share with their classmates experiences, possessions, news, and discoveries, they are doing three important things: growing in language development, improving in speech, and adding new words to their vocabulary.

As a classroom activity the success of "show-and-tell" depends to a large extent on the teacher's interest and ability in inspiring the necessary motivation. Now, let's examine the role the teacher should play. Though most of such activity discussion is and should be spontaneous, a teacher may at times, without conspicuous interference, make suggestions and do a certain amount of guiding to insure maximum effectiveness.

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This guidance may be carried out in several ways. The teacher

- 1. Interest pupils in finding further information, and keep a good selection of resource books available in the classroom.
- 2. Help children see cause-andeffect relationships more clearly.
- 3. Add to discussion, when necessary, to keep it moving.
- Encourage and guide children in selection of educational books and materials to use during their free time.
- 5. Recognize and commend children for their educational presentations, thus stimulating others to do better work.

The kind of "summary" or followup made on each presentation depends on the maturity of the pupils. Many will, themselves, "recognize" unanswered questions and will make good use of the library reference facilities.

Recently, for five months, we observed a second-grade classroom

in which the teacher had incorporated the "show-and-tell" activity into the curriculum with surprisingly effective results. The teacher, Kathryn Ledbetter, at the Casis Elementary School in Austin, encourages all forms of selfexpression, and the pupils respond freely and creatively.

Each day a different pupil serves as chairman of the activity and performs these several important functions: one, to select and announce the sequence or order of sharing; two, to encourage courtesy and order; three, to watch the time and keep a few from dominating the "show-and-tell"; and four, to thank each pupil as his part is completed. The children themselves are interested in improving this activity in their classroom, sometimes taking votes on a certain question, or asking if anyone would like to hear further information on the subject next day.

In its deepest sense, "show-andtell" should not be merely a speech situation. It involves a continuity of the various areas of communication. In its broadest sense, "showand-tell" implements and underlies the entire program of education, and in a flexible program it is not limited to one set period.

Of course, motivation by the teacher is a most important factor in producing an effective "showand-tell." Perhaps a few examples of well-integrated classroom activity will provide some helpful ideas for elementary teachers who want their "show-and-tell" presentations

to be educational and instructional, as well as entertaining, for every member of the class.

I. Mary had taken a trip from Texas to Florida. She brought a map of Mississippi, Arkansas, and Louisiana to class and traced her route. She had prepared her own outline and talked about her trip from her notes. Mary also had brought some pine cones she gathered on the trip.

2. When studying about fossils, one of the students found some pictures in the National Geographic illustrating an article entitled "Brontosaur Walks Again! A Prehistoric Drama Lives Anew for Museum Visitors." The pupils were fascinated with the report and pictures of these prehistoric animals.

The unit was on dental health. One of the boys found the jawbone of a covote with the teeth intact. He brought it to class for the pupils to inspect, remarking, "He didn't take care of his teeth very well." This led into a report made on the types of animal teeth, blunt for grass, sharp for eating meat and tearing, tusks for defense or for digging.

4. Music, too, provided an opportunity to "show-and-tell." Susan brought her violin to class. After showing and naming all the parts, she played "Picking Strawberries" and "Twinkle, Twinkle Little Star." Another pupil couldn't bring his piano. But he prepared a cardboard piano keyboard. He explained it and then he "played" a piece silently.

Teachers' Attitudes toward Current English Usage

THURSTON WOMACK

In The English Journal

HERE is some feeling among teachers of English that the battle of usage has been won. There is a feeling, too, among some of us that discussions about moot or debatable usages are somehow old hatthat everybody knows nowadays that to object to the split infinitive is, as Robert C. Pooley put it in Teaching English Usage, "little more than pedantic rubbish." I am one, however, who believes that the study of usage and the dissemination of information about usage to teachers must be continuous and persistent. I base my statement on the evidence of a study I completed last year in order to discover teachers' attitudes toward 50 debatable items of usage.

The teachers included in the survey were all members of the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) and included elementary, secondary, and college teachers. The 50 debatable items of usage were selected from the "disputable" items discussed in current literature and likely to be available to the teachers. The usages are listed here as economically as possible, either by the familiar grammatical label, by a truncated example, or by description, whichever way seems clearest.

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The split infinitive; the case of the noun or pronoun before the gerund; seven items of agreement between subject and verb and pronoun and antecedent: one . . . he; . . . is when . . . : these kind . . .; data is . . . ; preposition at end of sentence; either of three; shortest of two; dangling participle (not an absurd one); myself used in the nominative; between you and I; who are you waiting for?; drive slow; as if he was; it is me; aren't I . . . ; Jones was younger than him; building's roof; after discussing the heroine, most of the young women expressed no desire to be her; it looks like it will rain; the boy felt badly; can in the sense of permission; very nice people; fixed in the sense of repaired; different than; awful colds; New York is further east than Chicago; try and finish; due to in the sense of because of; has proven; raised instead of reared; Americans have got to make democracy work; some students do not know if they can . . . ; divided between three; the reason . . . was because . . . ; the students enthused about . . . ; the state hung the murderers; the old man laid down on his bed . . . ; . . . cannot help but . . . ; the swimmers dove into the pool; the soldiers fulfilled the dying wish of the commander.

The questionnaire used in the survey asked the teacher to judge each item with regard to acceptability in formal or informal speech and formal or informal writing, thus allowing a choice of the four variables in each of the two categories, speech and writing. The 50 items were offered as being usages which sometimes occur in the language of students. The teacher was asked what the teacher's attitude should be toward the items.

Published information for each usage was compared item by item with the teachers' views, revealing that in general the majority of teachers still reject most usages that published information tends to support as acceptable. The teachers' comments often clarified their reasons for not accepting the items, and they were often more revealing than the statistics. Many teachers in the survey felt that English teachers are obligated to hold a conservative view toward language change and should acknowledge changes in usage only after such changes are reported in journals, textbooks, and dictionaries. One college teacher who rejected most of the items on the questionnaire

claimed familiarity with the history of the English language, with Fries, Marckwardt, and Bloomfield. Yet he maintained his position on the basis of personal preference for the so-called correct usages.

NO JUSTIFICATION

Other teachers succinctly labeled the items as "incorrect grammar." Some commented that the line must be held or "these errors . . , will continue to exist." The "rules of grammar" were often cited, and frequent missuse, it was claimed, is no justification for grammatical errors. One teacher asserted that the American people have become "grammar lazy," that it is the English teacher's responsibility to uphold standards in language. There was also the view expressed that such words as enthused and proven "do not literally exist." Some teachers felt that teaching that more than one usage is acceptable further confuses an already con-Other teachers fused student. claimed to be "old-fashioned" and to be influenced by extensive training in Latin as reasons for rejecting most of the usages.

The foregoing characterizes roughly a prescriptive, or "right" or "wrong" view toward usage. Among the written-in comments on the questionnaires were many which reveal a descriptive view toward usage. The descriptive view observes levels of usage, sees acceptable usage not as being "right" or "wrong," but as being relative to the social situation in

which language is used. This descriptive view of usage is the position held by such scholars and students of usage as Fries, Marckwardt and Walcott, and others.

Among those voicing a descriptive approach to usage study and teaching were many who feel that insistence on usages which teachers themselves do not observe is not only ludicrous but a waste of time. Many teachers stated that the usage they try to get their students to observe and imitate is the usage of the educated people of the community in which they live, regardless of whether or not that usage violates the rules of the grammar books.

The questionnaire provided stadata for demonstrating the possible relationship between scores on the usage items and the variables: (1) grade level at which the teacher teaches, (2) size of community in which the teacher teaches, (3) years of teaching experience, and (4) highest academic degree held by the teacher. Earlier studies suggested that high-school teachers in small towns tended to reject items of debatable usage. The present survey confirms this tendency and adds two other variables, experience and degree held. The teacher, then, most likely to reject items of debatable usage is the high-school teacher with more than 10 years of teaching experience living in a small town, who holds either an A.B. or an M.A. degree. On the other hand, the teacher most likely to accept items of debatable usage is the college teacher in a city of more than 50,000 people with less than 10 years of experience and a doctor's degree. The fact that the elementary teacher generally falls between these two furnishes interesting material for conjecture.

One might safely infer in the case of the college teacher that a tendency to approve items of debatable usage is directly related to linguistic sophistication. Logically, then, one might conclude that elementary teachers are in general more sophisticated linguistically than high-school teachers, although this conclusion should be made only tentatively, since the position of elementary teachers might be explained on the basis of their not being linguistically sophisticated enough to identify "wrong" usages. There is, however, some information in the survey which indicates that the elementary teachers can hardly be considered benighted about linguistic matters.

One thing seems clear: the usage battle has not been won, though progress has been made. Two recommendations seem in order: (1) Regardless of teaching level, there should be included in the preparation of teachers of English a sound orientation in the views and methodology of modern scientific language study; (2) The NCTE should continue its program of support of committees on current English usage and its publication of books and articles dealing with usage of American English.

Can Teachers Teach What They Don't Know?

Arithmetical Understandings of Elementary-School Teachers

JOHN E. BEAN

In The Elementary School Journal

ODAY it is imperative that all citizens attain mathematical literacy to carry out the responsibilities and use the opportunities of effective citizenship in a modern technocracy. Elementary-school teachers—as well as junior-high and senior-high teachers—must recognize and assume their share of responsibility through effective arithmetic instruction in our public schools.

A firm grasp of basic arithmetical concepts and processes is essential to teach arithmetic meaningfully. Teachers cannot teach understandings that they themselves do not have. Effective instructional methodology will not automatically follow understanding, but certain effective teaching methods are inescapably rooted in understanding.

One prerequisite for any program to further develop essential understandings among teachers is to determine what factors the teachers bring to the teaching of arithmetic—their understanding of the subject, their attitudes toward it, and their recognition of possible need for improvement. To measure these facets of the classroom teachers' background was the purpose of a study recently completed under the direction of the writer and the

John E. Bean, formerly Assistant Professor of Education at Brigham Young University, Salt Lake City, now is Director of Research in the Utah State Department of Public Instruction. Reported from The Elementary School Journal, XLIX (May 1959), 447–50.

sponsorship of the Utah Educational Research Council. The instrument selected to measure elementary-school teachers' understanding of basic arithmetical principles and concepts was Glennon's Test of Basic Mathematical Understandings, which consists of five sections:

- 1. The Decimal System of Notation (15 items)
- 2. Basic Understandings of Integers and Processes (15 items)
- 3. Basic Understandings of Fractions and Processes (15 items)
- Basic Understandings of Decimals and Processes (20 items)
- 5. Basic Understandings of the Rationale of Computation (15 items)

Altogether 450 classroom teachers in the elementary schools in 40 representative school districts in Utah were tested for the study. The teachers' scores on the 80-item test

ranged from 18 to 78. The mean score for all teachers was 52.46, or 65.58 percent. Roughly, two-thirds of all teachers answered between 39 and 65 items correctly.

IMPROVEMENT NEEDED

A questionnaire was devised to determine the relationship between test scores and various criterions deemed relevant to the problem. It was revealed, for example, that teachers, having taken the test, noted that they were in need of improvement. Before the test, the overwhelming majority of teachers -71.92 percent-considered themselves average in arithmetical understandings covered by the test; 89.35 percent considered themselves average or above and thus presumably under no great pressure for selfimprovement. After the test, however, the group who perceived themselves as below average in arithmetic understanding increased from 10.65 percent to 24.96 percent.

The study also indicated that as teachers gain experience there is a small cumulative increase in their understanding of arithmetic, and that a teachers college preparation has a direct bearing on arithmetic understandings. Teachers who had done graduate work, for instance, averaged more than seven points above teachers who did not have a Bachelor's degree.

The first steps in any program of remediation must be to determine objectively whether improvement is possible as well as desirable. Since many teachers—on all grade levels—scored in the 60's and 70's, it seems fair to assume that improvement for most of the others is possible.

Judging from the test results, most elementary-school teachers apparently have an adequate understanding of the place-value relationships in the decimal system of notation. The problem here, then, is primarily one of refining and extending these understandings.

OTHER PROBLEMS

The study disclosed several other problems. For example, while three-fourths of the items on integers and processes were answered correctly, this proportion dropped to just over half when decimal processes were introduced. It should not take a great deal of review to enlarge the facility with integers to include the important but less familiar extension of integers into decimal fractions.

The findings on fractions and fractional processes pointed up another difficulty. Fractions are not based on powers of 10 but on an infinite number of possible denominators. Many teachers a more thorough understanding of the quantitative relationships among fractions that are used widely enough to justify their inclusion in the curriculum. The concepts of halves, thirds, fourths, eighths, twelfths, sixteenths, and thirty-seconds especially should be developed, along with the understandings necessary to extend these

concepts to any unfamiliar fractions encountered.

The final section of the test explored teachers' understandings of the rationale of computation. As a test of computational skills, the examples in the section were simple enough. Yet teachers were able to explain underlying principles involved in these computations for only 60 percent of the items. The results seem to point up conclusions of other researchers who have noted an emphasis on rote memorization and mechanical processes.

Authorities generally agree that the undergraduate preparation of teachers should include a basic course in arithmetic and course in teaching methodology. Some colleges of education have already set up these requirements. An arithmetic course to develop a working understanding of number systems should be required not only of elementary-school teachers but also of all college students who cannot demonstrate adequate understanding and proficiency in this field. The course proposed is not a remedial course that repeats the content of high-school mathematics, but a college-level course with full credit.

Ideally, the requirement would in time eliminate the need for such a course. For, if teachers whose understandings are coupled with effective teaching procedures could so guide the quantitative experiences of children that the children achieved a lasting understanding and mastery of fundamental arithmetic principles and concepts, the next generation of teachers would have far less need for a college-level course in basic mathematics. While it is virtually impossible to realize this ideal in full, partial realization is both possible and likely.

The needs are too pressing to limit action to preservice education of teachers; in-service programs for improving arithmetic instruction are also needed. Two courses of inservice action seem appropriate. One possibility is a series of state, regional, or district workshops in arithmetic. Another possibility is a series of regional extension courses under the direction of the colleges of education in each state, to be offered at the graduate level for university credit.

Whether these activities are sponsored and financed by the various school districts, state departments of public instruction, institutional grants, or some combination of these, they present an opportunity and a challenge that parents and educators cannot ignore.

Arithmetic from a Child's Viewpoint

An eight-year-old girl, asked by her grandmother how she was doing in arithmetic, replied, "Swell, we're studying our Roman Noodles now."—Reported by Ellen Saunders in The Christian Science Monitor.

₩ With Education in Washington ★

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

Classroom Automation.—Automation is moving into classrooms-inexorably-and Washington officials are wondering what to do about it. Stop it? Hardly possible. The armed forces have made extensive use of teaching machines and the evidence reflects the effectiveness of the electronic teacher. Encourage the trend? That is hardly necessary. Research and experimentation with teaching machines are moving ahead at a brisk pace. Washington officials have, therefore, decided to do the only thing they can-report what's happening and hope for the best.

The first such report will be called "Automation in Teaching." It is being compiled by the NEA's division of audio-visual instruction. The story will begin in 1926 and will end with an account of three teaching machines soon to be placed on the market by Prof. Skinner of Harvard University.

Devices already in use teach arithmetic to elementary children and foreign languages to high-school students. Some machines use the Socratic method; others encourage a problem-solving technique; and there are machines which can help in drill with anything from grammar to geometric theorems.

Leaders in audio-visual instruction foresee sharp controversy developing around the use of teaching machines.

Creators of these electronic

teaching devices already argue that "education, just as other industries, must increase productivity to solve the problem of multiplying student population vs. lagging teaching population." They argue teaching machines would decrease clerical drudgery for teachers and provide individual tutors for students. Experimentation with teaching machines and their program content is now going on in the New York Institute of Technology, at Harvard University, and at various points north and south and all the way across the country to California's UCLA. A good deal of experimentation has already been carried on with subject matter and with test groups of elementary-grade pupils. In some instances, many of the more determined experimenters believe the machines can replace living teachers on the college level and foresee their use both in teaching basic content as well as in testing achievement.

Organized teachers are expected to fight the introduction of the gadgets in the classrooms with the same fervor that eighteenth-century workers fought the automatic loom.

Can Schools Help Delinquency?

Good teaching and good school administration are potent measures in reducing the incidence of juvenile misbehavior, the Juvenile Delinquency Project reported to the NEA last month.

Wise teachers and sympathetic principals are in the first line of defense in combatting potential troublemaking by youths. But a small percentage of tougher characters need stern measures, and these must be administered not by school people but by the psychiatrist, social worker, police, and court officers.

The NEA's Juvenile Delinquency Project spent nearly 12 months studying causes and cures for youthful misbehavior. Its report, in two volumes, first seeks a theory for juvenile delinquency and then suggests principles and practices for coping with the problem. (See page 5 of this issue of THE EDUCATION DIGEST.)

The theoretical statement holds that a good deal of juvenile crime stems from lower-class youngsters who seek to find themselves or to establish their worth as personalities. The ways in which they seek to achieve this—cursing, beating up others, cheating, stealing—are not accepted by the legal-societal system under which we live. The cure, in theory, therefore, is to help lower-class youngsters find ways for achieving prestige which do not violate the norms of our culture.

Coming to the more solid ground of practice, the Project reports case after case in which potential troublemakers were set straight by good classroom management, zestful teaching, and sympathetic counseling. Moreover, the Project staff members assign the classroom teacher a special role in the fight

against juvenile crime. The teacher should identify early possible trouble makers of the future and refer them to the principal for special treatment.

Predelinquent and delinquent youngsters can often be helped by special courses, special teachers, or special classes. St. Paul, Houston, Newark (N. J.), Los Angeles County, Chicago, New York City, Indianapolis, and Pittsburgh are among the school districts which resort to such remedial or rehabilitative services.

"But juvenile delinquency is everybody's business. All citizens, the general public, and lay and professional workers must get into the act. The school . . . cannot go it alone," says the Project.

College Degree Mills.—The American Council on Education wants federal and state legislation to curb and control America's degree mills.

A degree mill, according to the Council, is an agency, calling itself a college or university, which sells, by mail usually, quickie diplomas for a fee starting at \$50 or so. A degree mill has no faculty, library, or adequately constructed correspondence lessons. A mailbox or a rented office desk serves as the campus. The "institution" offers bachelors, masters, and doctors degrees in subjects ranging from philosophy to naturopathic medicine.

The Council found that some 200 degree mills operate in the United

States, cheating 750,000 students of \$750,000,000 a year.

Of special interest to the U. S. State Department is that a number of degree mills located in the United States lure foreign nationals. "The sale of American diplomas in Africa is a significant problem," says Arthur S. Adams, Council president.

The Council recommends, therefore, that the State Department be empowered by law to control the operations of American degree mills as they affect international relations.

A large part of the responsibility for curbing the evils of the degree mills should fall on the U. S. Office of Education, the Post Office, and the Federal Trade Commission, the Council says. Just what assignments each should be given must be determined by Congress after a series of committee hearings.

But federal legislation must be coupled with action by the states. It is the states which must adopt uniform legislation setting minimum standards for licensing and operating institutions of higher learning, especially those which grant degrees. Concludes the Council: "With a firm legal framework obtained through state action and supplemental federal legislation, and with the careful documentation of degree mill activities placed in the public records through a congressional investigation . . . there is a real chance that American degree mills can be eliminated from the educational scene."

Rickover Testifies.—When Vice Admiral Hyman G. Rickover returned from Soviet Russia last summer, he received a telephone call from Clarence Cannon (D., Missouri), chairman of the powerful House Committee on Appropriations. Would the Admiral mind testifying before the Committee on Russia's schools? The Admiral said he'd be delighted and so became the rare example of being witness for a Congressional hearing set up especially to hear him and him alone.

The Committee has just released the testimony. It is an 82-page pamphlet in which the Admiral records these personal convictions:

1. American schools are not the best in the world.

2. In the training of the intellect the Russians are doing a better job than we are.

 American schools should abolish the electives system for highschool and college students.

 American schools should set up uniform national standards to which teachers, schools, and pupils would have to adhere.

5. American communities should stop building beautiful school edifices and make their school plants more austere, like Russia is doing. Then there would be enough money saved for "real education."

Although these statements repeat the Admiral's previously published arguments, they assume importance because they were restated before the Appropriations Committee during a long and leis-

urely session. Admiral Rickover received a careful hearing by nearly all Committee members. This is the same Committee which has a life-and-death power over all appropriations for school purposes.

At one point in the testimony, Rep. Evins (D., Tenn.) asked: "As I have listened to your comments, Admiral, it appears that the Russians are taking the lead in welldisciplined education in getting at fundamentals. Our forte has been more along the lines of inculcating initiative and independent thought. Of course, we all appreciate that, for example, a man who can't add or subtract properly is not likely to develop a new system of calculus. But, don't you feel that perhaps our system and our emphasis on initiative, to some extent at least, is a factor to our advantage?"

Admiral Rickover: "I am afraid that I cannot agree with you that our educational system inculcates initiative and independence thought. In my opinion, it goes in too much for life adjustment, behavioral conditioning, and teaching the child to conform to whatever group he will be identified with in later life. Typewriting, driver training, woodshop, quette, baton twirling, flycasting, domestic science, and other knowhow subjects, no matter how 'useful' they may be, do not, to my mind, inculcate as much initiative and independent thought as does grappling with the basic liberalarts curriculum. Dealing with hard intellectual problems toughens the

mind and to that extent develops initiative."

NEA Emphasis.—For the third consecutive year, the National Education Association took a day and a half to bring together its entire professional staff—or as many members as could be rounded up at one time—to do some stock-taking, soul-searching, and planning for the future. The sessions were held September 20 and 21.

Where shall the NEA place its emphasis during the months ahead? was the big question Executive Secretary William G. Carr asked. The answers were already foreshadowed by the assignments given to four task forces three months before the two-day soul-searching meeting.

The task forces were asked to explore (1) ways for working toward balance in the curriculum, (2) ways to improve professional preparation of teachers, (3) how to improve communication between NEA and its affiliated state and local associations, and (4) how to finance quality in public education.

It should be no surprise that the NEA staff considered point four its most challenging assignment for the coming months. In the words of Dr. Carr: "The most important single agreement of the recent staff conference was that there should be an all out effort to pass legislation providing substantial federal support for public elementary and secondary schools. This would be in support of the official NEA position. Such an effort is

imperative before Congress comes back for the next session."

In short, 1960 should be a normal year. The NEA, as usual, will make its all-out effort for a bill seeking federal aid to the public schools.

Grants-in-Aid Agency.—Congress is planning to set up a permanent commission to advise on a multi-billion dollar business—grants-in-aid to the states.

Even lawmakers skeptical of "another commission" think it is a good idea. The second session of the 86th Congress, beginning in January, is likely to enact the legislation creating this new agency.

In 1959 the federal government paid out \$6 billion in all types of grants to states. About \$1 billion of this was for educational purposes. Congress believes it is time to set up permanent machinery that would bring efficiency in the distribution of these grants. (The efforts to curtail or limit them has long been abandoned.)

Congressional grants-in-aid go back to the days of Lincoln; efforts to regulate them go back to the days of Theodore Roosevelt. In 1908 President Roosevelt called the first Governors Conference and laid before it the question of how federal help to the states could be coordinated and improved.

Half a century later this same question was before the so-called Kestnbaum Commission. In 1953, the White House asked a businessman, Meyer Kestnbaum, to head up a temporary commission on intergovernment relations. The group labored for two years and issued a report, the substance of which was that the federal government should curtail grants-in-aid and gradually return the activities in which the federal government has been involved back to the states.

Educators did not like this conclusion-but they had little to worry about. According to Rep. Fontain (D., N.C.), the Kestnbaum Commission has had "no significant impact" on federal-state relations or the improvement of grants-inaid programs. A still later effort made by President Eisenhower in creating a Joint Federal-State Action Committee was about as effective as the Kestnbaum Commission. Congressmen say that there is need for a permanent piece of machinery under a Congressional charter and with a specific Congressional mandate and with power to act.

Should such an agency be created, it would face, in microcosm, nearly all the problems of the federal government. Aside from road building, flood prevention, conservation, and public-health questions (to name but four) it would have to be concerned with grants-in-aid for agricultural extension work, school lunches, rural libraries, vocational education and rehabilitation, school operations in federally affected areas, college housing, and child welfare services (to name but seven.)

Educational News

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENCIES:

Indianapolis, Ind.: George S. Ostheimer, acting superintendent since the resignation of Herman L. Shibler in June, has been named superintendent.

Eugene, Ore.: Millard Z. Pond, formerly superintendent at Burlington, Iowa, is successor to Clar-

ence Hines, resigned.

Santa Cruz, Calif.: Thomas R. Turner, formerly at Pacific Grove, Calif., is now superintendent.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

Wisconsin State College, Eau Claire: Leonard Haas, dean of instruction since 1948, has been named successor to William R. Davies, president since 1941, who resigned because of ill health.

University of Arkansas, Fayetteville: Storm Whaley has been named acting president, succeeding John T. Caldwell, now chancellor of North Carolina State College, Ra-

leigh.

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS:

Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia: R. Marvin Schadt, formerly superintendent at Ellinwood, Kan., has been named head of the department of school administration.

University of Texas, Austin: Bascom B. Hayes, formerly superintendent at Freeport, Tex., has been appointed professor of educational administration.

OTHER CHANGES AND APPOINTMENTS:

Clardy H. Moore, who retired in June after 32 years as superintendent at Clarksville, Tenn., has been appointed special staff assistant for the National Defense Education Act Programs in the U. S. Office of Education. Another recent appointment by the U. S. Office of Education is Don Twiford, formerly director of guidance services with the Nebraska State Department of Education, who was named specialist for program development of testing, guidance, and counseling for the U. S. Office.

RECENT DEATHS:

Harry Dexter Kitson, professor emeritus of education at Teachers College, Columbia University, and a pioneer in the development of vocational guidance, at the age of 73.

Plastic School

A school building made of plastics which can be expanded, converted to new needs, and even taken apart, moved to a different site, and quickly reassembled, has been designed at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

The school is constructed of load-bearing sandwich panels made of thin plastic outer skins bonded to a core of plastic foam. The skins bear most of the load. The core stabilizes the outer skins, prevents them from buckling under stress, and is used as insulation.

Fewer H. S. Formal Classes?

High schools patterned more like colleges—with fewer formal classes and more individual study time—were suggested as one way of solving the problem of crowded high-school curriculums by Lloyd S. Michael, superintendent of Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Ill., at a National Conference of Physicians and Schools held in

Highland Park, Ill., in October. "All too frequently we have organized our high schools as though without the physical presence of the teacher there would be no learning," he said. "However, nearly all college students report that they learn more per year in college, where each class meets only two or three times a week, than they do in high school, where each class meets every day. There is no reason to think that youngsters 13 to 17 years old can stand more of a classroom grind than college students."

International Committee

CREATION of an independent national committee to study the participation of American universities in international education, research, and technical assistance was announced in October by Henry T. Heald, president of the Ford Foundation.

The new group, known as the Committee on the University and World Affairs, consists of nine leaders from universities, government, business, and foundations. J. L. Morrill, president of the University of Minnesota, is chairman. Other members are: Harold Boeschenstein, president, Owens-Corning Fiberglas Corporation; Harvie Branscomb, chancellor, Vanderbilt University; Arthur S. Flemming, U. S. Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare; Senator J. W. Fulbright; John W. Gardner, president, the Carnegie Corporation of New York; Franklin D. Murphy,

chancellor, University of Kansas; Philip D. Reed, General Electric Company; and Dean Rusk, president, the Rockefeller Foundation.

For Better Administrators

The American Association of School Administrators has announced it has received a grant of \$346,843 by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation of Battle Creek, Mich., to aid in its efforts to raise standards of school administration and improve leadership of America's schools.

The Committee for the Advancement of School Administration, through which the Kellogg Foundation and AASA have been working in recent years in a joint effort to improve administrative standards in schools, will continue to spearhead the program, according to Martin Essex, president of the AASA.

Ultimate aims of the program are to bring about accreditation of selected colleges and universities specially qualified to award degrees in school administration, to help states adopt standards which would require new school administrators to be graduates of accredited schools, and to persuade school boards to employ only graduates of high quality training programs.

School Fire Study

THE National Academy of Sciences—National Research Council, a private body of research scientists and engineers, has announced a special study of school fire safety. The study will be conducted by the

Building Research Advisory Board with joint sponsorship of the Committee on Fire Research under a grant from Educational Facilities Laboratories, Inc.

> Chief purpose of the project is to assemble, evaluate, and publish information on the question of fire safety and its dual relationship to the economies of school structures and the educational needs of communities.

New Magazine

Announcement of a new magazine to be issued starting in January has been made by Buttenheim Publishing Company. The new publication, to be called Overview, will incorporate two current Buttenheim publications-The School Executive and Educational Business.

Editor of Overview will be Archibald B. Shaw, formerly superintendent at Scarsdale, N. Y. He succeeds Walter D. Cocking, who will retire January 1, 1960. Dr. Cocking has been editor of School Executive and Educational Business since 1943.

New TV Center

A CENTER for Instructional Television, said to be the first of its kind in the United States, has been established by New York University in collaboration with the Radio Corporation of America. Center's program, designed to develop and disseminate the most effective techniques for televised teaching in the nation's schools, was scheduled to begin in September.

Intended for teachers, producerdirectors, evaluators, and administrators, the Center's program will include teacher-training, apprenticeships, institutes and in-service workshops, consulting services, and research.

The Radio Corporation of America has provided approximately \$100,000 in funds and television equipment for the Center.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

Nov. 1-2, Association of Urban

Universities, Buffalo, N. Y.

Nov. 3-5, National Association of Public School Adult Educators, Buffalo, N. Y.

Nov. 8-14, American Education

Week.

Nov. 25-28, National Council for the Social Studies, Kansas City.

Nov. 27-29, National Council for Education, Geographic Mich.

Nov. 29-Dec. 2, National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, Chicago, Ill.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS: Dec. 7-11, American Vocational Association, Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 11-13, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education,

Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 13-17, American Association of School Administrators, Atlantic City, N. J.

Feb. 27-Mar. 2, National Association of Secondary-School Princi-

pals, Portland, Ore.

Feb. 29-Mar. 3, NEA Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Mar. 6-10, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Develop-

ment, Washington, D. C.

Mar. 25-30, Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, St. Louis, Mo.

Getting Down to Cases. Robert L. Brackenbury. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959. Pp. 222. 84.00.

Subtitled "A Problems Approach to Educational Philosophizing," this book introduces into each chapter specific problematic situations instead of describing various philosophical viewpoints and deducting educational implications therefrom.

Each situation is developed to represent one or more of the crucial issues in education today. The problems are theoretical in that they involve broad issues and principles, but their treatment is given substance and concreteness by the use of the case approach. Following each case study there is a discussion of various methods of handling the situation and the principles of philosophy involved in each method.

Professor Brackenbury is chairman of social and philosophical education at the University of Southern California.

Introduction to Educational Research. Carter V. Good. New York: Appleton - Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959. Pp. xii + 424, \$5.00

The author explains that this is not intended to be a "rule book" of research methods, but is, instead, a discussion of concepts, principles, and procedures in educational research.

The plan of presentation followed here is to identify areas appropriate for investigation, to characterize the research procedure or datagathering technique, and to summarize illustrative studies.

The author discusses such topics as the hallmarks of scientific meth-

od, problem and hypothesis, history and historiography, descriptive-survey studies, development and growth studies, clinical and case studies, experimental designs, and the technical report.

Dr. Good is director of graduate studies and dean of Teachers College, University of Cincinnati.

School. Robert H. Knapp. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.,

1959. Pp. xii + 394. \$5.00.

Guidance, in this book, is related to all facets of the child's experience, not only in school but at home and in the community.

The role of the teacher as teacher-counselor in the elementary school, the role of the cumulative record in the guidance program, the problem of exceptional children, the techniques of grouping, and the techniques of administration are all covered in the discussion.

The reasons behind the various guidance techniques presented are given by the author to help the reader develop understanding and achieve the flexibility needed to cope with individual situations as they arise.

The Alive and Growing Teach-

er. Clark E. Moustakas. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1959. Pp. 157. \$3.00.

This book is a portrayal of persons living and learning together. It is an account of persons struggling with personal and professional issues, problems and concerns, and their growing respect, acceptance, and love for each other.

The particular group involved is a group of classroom teachers and principals. Their experience and the underlying theory, however, are

relevant to any person concerned with human relations and genuine life with other persons.

Curriculum Consultants at Work; Factors Affecting Their Success. Marcella R. Lawler. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959. Pp. x + 212. \$3.75.

This book, based on original research done under the auspices of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute School Experimentation, describes the work of six consultants as they engaged in cooperative curriculum research studies in Associated Schools of the Institute.

It is a study of the factors that facilitate or impede the curriculum consultant's work with teachers and instructional leaders in improving the school program. The four critical areas identified as affecting the success of the curriculum consultant-problem definition, group climate, consultant ways of working, and central office leadershipare discussed in separate chapters.

Sociometry in the Classroom.

Norman E. Gronlund. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1959. Pp. xviii + 340. \$4.50.

Professor Gronlund has made available in this book a comprehensive integration and interpretation of sociometric research literature and its meaning for education from reports scattered throughout technical professional journals not generally available to school personnel.

The book is organized into three parts, following an introductory chapter which presents a description of the sociometric technique. The first part is devoted to methods of testing. Part two contains the basic information needed for understanding sociometric results. The third part of the book is devoted to the educational applications of sociometric results.

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED:

ELEMENTARY

Mathematics, Grade 3; Materials for the Literature Program, Grades 1-6; and Science, Grades K-6: Earth in Space. Curriculum bulletins of the New York City Board of Education. Available from the New York Publications Sales Office, 110 Livingston St., Brooklyn 1, N. Y. \$1.50, \$.75, and \$.50.

Animals and with Working Working with Plants. J. Myron Atkin and R. Will Burnett. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1959. Pp. viii + 67 and vi + 58. \$1.00 each. Two booklets in the Elemen-Science Activities School tary Series.

Aviation Units for the Intermediate Grades. Developed by teachers of Syracuse, N. Y. school district. Available from National Aviation Education Council, Washington 6, D. C. Pp. 31, \$.50.

Your Child Entering School? Greenfield, Mass.: Channing L. Bete Co., Inc., 1959. Pp. 15. \$.25 each. A scriptographic booklet.

Strengthening Fundamental Skills with Instruction Games. Guy Wagner, Mildred Alexander, and Max Hosier. Cedar Falls, Ia.: J. S. Latta and Son, 1959. Pp. 91. \$1.00. Includes 150 instructional games.

SECONDARY

Good Reading for Poor Readers. George D. Spache. Champaign, Ill.: The Garrard Press, 1958. Pp. 168.

Spelling for You. Hardy R. Finch, Harrison B. Bell, and Anna Brochick. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. Pp. viii + 114. \$2.24. Designed for juniorand senior-high students. Contains a basic word list of 630 words most frequently misspelled.

Successful School Publications. Erwin F. Karner and Christobel M. Cordell. Portland, Me.: J. W. Balch, 1959. Pp. 210. \$2.50, paperbound.

The Junior High School Program. Atlanta, Ga.: The Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1958. Pp. iv + 112. \$1.50. Discounts in quantity. Report of a study conducted by the Commission on Secondary Schools and the Commission on Research and Service.

Biology and Human Progress. (Second Edition.) Louis Eisman and Charles Tanzer. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958. Pp. xiv + 544. \$4.80.

Management for You. Cleo Fitzsimmons and Nell White. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1958. Pp. ix + 422. \$4.20. Includes management of self, management in homemaking activities, and management in the family.

COLLEGE

The Adventure of Learning in College; An Undergraduate Guide to Productive Study. Roger H. Garrison, New York: Harper & Brothers, 1959. Pp. xii + 270. \$3.25.

Are Liberal Arts Colleges Becoming Professional Schools? Earl J. McGrath and Charles H. Russell. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958. Pp. 26. \$.50.

GUIDANCE

Employment Opportunities for Women in Legal Work. Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 265, U. S. Department of Labor, 1958. Pp. vi + 34. Available from U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. \$.20.

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ton, D.C. Single copy free.

A Guide to Vocations in Engineering and Related Fields. Lynn and Lillian Ralya. A 42-page booklet available from the authors, 907 Fourteenth St., Santa Monica, Calif. \$1.25.

GENERAL

Ewen's Musical Masterworks; The Encyclopedia of Musical Masterpieces. David Ewen. New York: Arco Publishing Company, 1959. Pp. vi + 740. \$3.95. A revised edition of Music for the Millions.

Educating the Gifted; A Book of Readings. Edited by Joseph L. French. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1959. Pp. xv + 555.

\$5.50.

Hand in Hand. Medford, Mass.: Gordon & Company, Publishers, 1958. Pp. xxi + 337. \$10.00. Describes 50 years (1908-1958) of industry-aided, selective cooperative education.

Community Education; Principles and Practices from World-Wide Experience. Edited by Nelson B. Henry, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1959. Pp. xxii + 417. \$3.00. (paper bound); \$4.00 (cloth). Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.

Education in a Free Society. Reuben G. Gustavson, Peter Viereck, and Paul Woodring. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press,

1959. Pp. 47. \$3.00.

Classroom Kit on Nuclear Energy. Kit consists of 40-page booklet, Opportunities in Atomic Industry"; 12-page booklet on the atomic industry; and 13" x

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20" flow chart of U. S. atomic industry. Available from Atomic Industrial Forum, 3 E. 54th St., New York 22, N. Y. \$7.50.

Economics and the Educational Administrator. Meno Lovenstein, New York: Joint Council on Economic Education, 1958. Pp. ix +

Eyes, Our Windows to the World. New York: Better Light Better Sight Bureau, 1958. Pp. 32. Single

The Dark Ages. W. P. Kerr. New York: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1958. Pp. 236. \$.50, paperbound. A new

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McGraw-Hill Text-Films, 1959-Catalog. A 65-page booklet which includes a special National Defense Education Act supplement. Available from Text-Film Department, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 W. 42nd St., New York City.

Pictures Teach at Pennfield. A 19-minute color film on the role of audio-visual materials in today's schools. Available on free-loan basis from Audio-Visual Service, Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester 4, N. Y.

The Tape Recorder in the Classroom. Julia Mellenbruch. Austin, Tex.: University of Texas Visual Instruction Bureau, 1959. Pp. 67.

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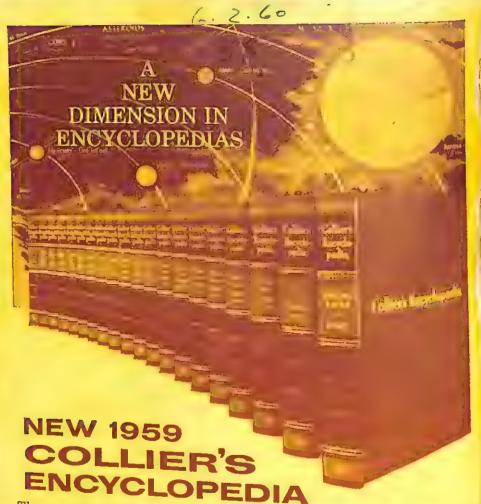
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25th Anniversary Year

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Volume XXV

December 1959

Number 4

Will They Modify Some of Our Basic Conceptions?

Teaching Machines and Selfinstructional Materials

A. A. LUMSDAINE

In Audio-Visual Communication Review

OME interesting developments have been taking place during the past few years in the construction of mechanical devices for individual selfinstruction. It becomes increasingly apparent that such devices and the instructional programs they present are likely to have very important implications for educational practice. It is even possible that in the relatively near future they could modify profoundly many of our basic conceptions of instructional method.

All of the devices that have been called "teaching machines" represent some form of variation on what can be called the "Socratic" method of teaching. That is, they present the individual student with programs of questions and answers, problems to be solved, exercises to be performed. In addition, however, they always provide some type of automatic feedback or correction to the student so that he is immediately informed of his

A. A. Lumsdaine is Program Director for Training and Education at the American Institute for Research, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. Reported from Audio-Visual Communication Review, VII (Summer 1959), 163—181.

progress at each step and given a basis for correcting his errors. They thus differ from films, TV, and most other audio-visual media as ordinarily utilized because of three important properties:

First, continuous active student response is required, providing explicit practice and testing of each step of what is to be learned.

Second, a basis is provided for informing the student with minimal delay whether each response he makes is correct, leading him directly or indirectly to correction of his errors.

Third, the student proceeds on an individual basis at his own ratefaster students romping through an instructional sequence very rapidly, slower students being tutored as slowly as necessary, with indefinite patience to meet their needs.

The devices thus represent a way of providing a preprogrammed study-practice combination which simulates, in partially or fully automated fashion, the functions of a private tutor in recitation and practice, with immediate correction of errors and feedback to the student.

The device which may be thought of as the ancestor of all subsequent teaching machines was developed over 30 years ago by Professor S. L. Pressey and his students at Ohio State University. Originally, it was conceived as an automatic testing device, but it soon became apparent that its instructional properties were also of great interest. The recent so-called "Subject-Matter Trainer" designed by Besnard, Briggs, et al, as part of an Air Force research and development program evolved from Professor Pressey's simpler devices. About a half dozen of these "trainers" have been constructed and tried out experimentally for instruction of technical specialists in the Air Force.

AIR FORCE TRAINER

In essence, what this "trainer" machine does is to present a predetermined sequence of questions, one at a time, in the aperture at the left of a panel. The student, who stands before the cabinet-type device, can answer questions by

selecting any of about 20 response choices which are displayed either verbally or pictorially on the large panel. Beside each answer choice is a green indicator light and a punch button by which the student may identify and record the answer he selects as the correct choice. The device has considerable flexibility and can be programmed for use either as a testing machine or for any of several modes of operation for selfinstruction in a variety of subject matters. It can be programmed, for example, so that the green light indicating the correct answer choice comes on at once the first time through, so that the student is guided to the correct choice. Later, he may be required to decide on a choice; if correct, the light beside the answer he has chosen so informs him, while if incorrect the light next to the answer that is correct comes on. Still later, he may be required to keep trying until he gets the correct answer. All the while, his performance is recorded and his errors totalled, so that he is continuously tested while he is learning. As he progresses, the machine can drop out the items he has mastered so that the student's time and interest are not dissipated by unnecessary repetition.

Obviously, this is a rather expensive device. It was built, however, for Air Force training situations in which its cost would be very minor in relation to the total training cost for technicians who used it, not to mention the cost of errors that ineffective train-

ing could occasion in the operation of a 10 million dollar bomber.

CIVILIAN DEVICES

There now have been developed several smaller and somewhat simpler mechanical teaching devices for use in civilian educational situations. But it is interesting to speculate about the reasons why multiple-choice devices, though shown by experimental tests to be quite effective aids to learning, did not catch on widely during the two decades following the initial development of Pressey's first machines. This may be partly because the times were not ripe for their acceptance, and partly that they were conceived primarily as testing devices and only secondarily as teaching machines. Also, it may have been due in part to some of their inherent limitations.

One of these limitations is that, as multiple-choice devices, they appeared to be limited to recognition responding, rather than permitting the student to compose or construct his own response. The latter advantage is, as a matter of fact, the subject of some controversy among teaching-machine designers at the present time, and is far from resolved by the research data to date.

Some devices do permit constructive responding. One, designed by Professor David Zeaman at the University of Connecticut, is similar to one of the machines earlier constructed by B. F. Skinner at Harvard. Professor Zeaman's special purpose machine, which

can be placed on a desk, was designed for teaching elementary arithmetic to grade-school children. A problem appears in the large window on the face of the machine. The problem may be of any degree of difficulty from 2x2 up to a problem in long division or square root. The student, after doing whatever supplementary mental or scratch-paper figuring he finds necessary, composes his answer by moving four plungers at the front of the machine. These operate the dials to show his answer in the aperture below the problem. When he is satisfied with his answer, he turns a crank at the right. If the answer is correct, the machine advances to the next problem by moving a tape on which the problems are printed. If wrong, it scores an error and leaves the problem unchanged so that he must try again until he gets the correct answer before he can proceed.

Several similar devices have been built, some with an extended repertoire of response-construction including letters as well as numbers, to permit their use for teaching spelling and other verbal subjects. On some, like the device developed by Professor Skinner, the student himself judges whether the answer he has given is correct.

But machines are not the only devices designed for selfinstruction. Glaser, Homme, and Evans are among those who have developed simple methods which retain some of the key features of their more elaborate counterparts. These edu-

cators have employed responseand-correction sequences provided by a special, nonconventional form of "programmed" question-andanswer book.

Such devices are especially attractive in terms of cost, but they lack some of the features of stimulus control and the fun of learning and being quizzed by a semiautomatic "gadget" or device -which is part of the appeal that slightly more complex devices seem to have for students. Also, they do not have the selfscoring features that are capable of relieving the teacher of the drudgery of quiz scoring; and since, as in the one described above, the answer appears on the succeeding page, they are not cheat-proof even as practice devices.

As was stated earlier, all of the developments in preprogrammed selfinstructional materials, and the devices for presenting them, are based fundamentally on Socratic question-and-answer, or problemand-solution, methods of teaching. Typically, they proceed in small steps of graded difficulty, so that mastery of concepts, understanding, and skills are gradually built up as the student proceeds through the program. An element that is probably crucial in their effectiveness is that of nearly continuous active student response that is monitored, guided, and corrected at each step in such a way as to insure mastery of one step before going on to the next.

In addition, optimum pacing to

fit each student's rate of progress can be provided, and the sequencing of instructional materials and amount of repetitive practice employed can be governed by the proficiency shown at each step by the individual student. The slower learner is thus gradually brought up to a satisfactory level of accomplishment, while the quicker student, after reaching a satisfactory level of attainment as fast as his abilities permit, can then, if desired, proceed to more advanced material.

The entire matter of selfquizzing and selfteaching programs suitable for use in the machines and related devices is one of great interest. The design of the program itself is one of the crucial factors in the successful utilization of automated individual tutoring methods. One of the unsolved problems concerns the machines themselves—how to provide machines which permit greater program variation. Several machines and methods promising greater flexibility are being tried.

The field of teaching machines and related devices has recently been expanding so rapidly that published information lags far behind the work accomplished and in progress. Unresolved issues for research have clearly emerged from developments thus far. But even at the present state of the art there appears to be a promise that automated learning techniques and devices will effect improvements of great practical importance in education.

The Problem of American Degree Mills

ROBERT H. REID

In American Degree Mills

DIPLOMA mills" are not the most important problem in American education today. They, nevertheless, warrant concern because in their activities they have involved foreign nationals seeking professional development in their respective countries. They have created an absurd situation, with international overtones, which has embarrassed the United States for many years.

There have been attempts at varjous times and levels to deal with degree mills. One, an example of successful Post Office Department action, brought about the sensational exposé of Oriental University of Washington, D. C., in 1924. Fortunately the records preserve some evidence of the size and scope of Oriental's nonresidential academic program. The "University" was headed by the remarkable "Bishop" Holler, who claimed he was ordained by the angels. Holler established a network of agents throughout the world and, unlike most such proprietors, kept close records of his students, their theses, the countries from which they came, and the degrees granted.

Because of the sporadic nature of attempts to expose American degree mills, however, the proprietors, always flexible, have been able to shift their operations into new

Robert H. Reid, a former Eisenhower Exchange Fellow, for nine years was Executive Assistant to the Committee on International Relations of the National Education Association. Reported from American Degree Mills, a publication of the American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1959. This is a condensation of the first chapter of the 99-page report, 1-11.

____ fields of "study" and into new geographical areas where they continue to grow in numbers and op-The ingenuity of the crations. operators of such institutions is astounding and belies the apparent simplicity of the problem. It may be added that the prospects for control, in a country which prides itself on the diversity of educational opportunity and the sanctity of local educational initiative, have not been bright. Indeed, the problem of degree mills offers a classic example of voluntary, state, and federal relations at their most frustrating.

Here is a situation in which America's unique educational climate, the expansion of learning opportunities, and their very diversity, has nurtured a pollution by diploma mills of our educational offerings. The more thoroughly all aspects of the issue are examined, the more obstacles are encountered. The value of such an exploration, however, cannot be questioned, for, in the words of George Santayana, "Those who cannot remember the past are condemned to repeat it."

WHAT IT IS

What is meant by the term "diploma mills"? For the purposes of our study, it was determined that American degree mills were to be identified as certain institutions calling themselves colleges or universities which confer "quick-way" (usually mail-order) degrees on payment of a fee. These institutions turn out bachelor's, master's, and doctor's degrees without requiring the labor, thought, and attention usually expected of those who earn such degrees. They fall into several categories but we have concerned ourselves in our study chiefly with American institutions located in the United States offering study by correspondence at home and abroad, which concentrate heavily on foreign nationals as prospective students. We find that all these "institutions of higher education" have certain characteristics:

(1) Their faculties are untrained, if not actually nonexistent. (2) The time and effort required to complete the course of study are a drastic telescoping of what is required in the usual curriculum. (3) Instruction by correspondence lessons is a travesty on reputable correspondence education. (4) Students are often unqualified for any program of higher learning. (5) Catalog descriptions are a far cry from

the realities of actual conditions and offerings. (6) Advertisements exaggerate offerings and qualifications and may include promises that cannot be fulfilled of well-paying jobs on graduation. (7) The "campus" is usually a post-office box or a single room or loft with no classrooms, library, or other facilities of a seat of learning. (8) The offiunethical selfseekers, whose qualifications are no better than their offerings, their degrees often having been attained from the same or similar institutions.

Degree mills advertise openly in this country and abroad in certain popular magazines of wide distribution. It is a simple matter for a student to pick a college. He need not write a legible or well-worded letter. He does not have to say much about his educational background. In July, 1958, a letter of inquiry addressed to a post-office box in a small town in Idaho brought a reply typical of the opportunities a diploma mill offers:

We are not chartered to give any Degrees. However we are affiliated with 13 different Colleges and Universities that do issue Degrees. We can help you get almost any Degree you desire. Most of them require a 10,000 word thesis and charge \$150.00 and up for each Degree. Please let us know what Degree you are interested in: Dr. of Chiropractic, Naturopathic Medicine, Psychology, Philosophy, Divinity, Theology, Master Herbalsits [sic] or Dr. of Botanic Medicines or a half dozen others that we can get for you. If we can assist you further, please contact us by telephone or letter any time. Our phone number is . . .

In 1950, Benjamin Fine, the then education editor of *The New York*

Times, claimed that in the United States there were more than 1000 unethical institutions and that at least 100 of these were out-and-out diploma mills granting unearned degrees. Evidence which has come to the attention of the American Council on Education since July of 1958-especially from public officials in California, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, and Maryland-indicates that this estimate of 100 bogus degree-granting universities and colleges is quite modest. One association that represents many of these phony colleges and universities, and maintains a seal of approval for their use, states that their annual business amounts to \$75,-000,000 and that their enrolment in one recent year was 750,000.

During the first part of this current study, an effort was made to compile a working list of "suspicious" institutions which might be classified as American degree mills. More than 200 such colleges and universities were discovered with operating addresses in at least 37 states. In addition, records were obtained involving more than 130 separate instances of foreign student and alumni relations in 42 foreign countries and on every continent.

It is extremely difficult, we have found, to ascertain even the approximate number of students involved in the operations of these institutions, since few degree-holders are willing to testify against their "alma mater." Cases examined have revealed as few as a

handful of students in some degreegranting diploma mills and as many as 500 alumni for one U. S. institution now operating in Italy. A guess of the total would surely run well into the thousands.

DISACCREDITATION PROBLEM

The United States, unlike most other countries of the world, has no ministry of education. State laws chartering institutions of higher education are not uniform and are actually quite lax in controlling education malpractice. There is no single vardstick for accreditation. This system is especially difficult to explain to nationals of other countries. They simply cannot appreciate that a country can have educational standards unless there is a federal agency controlling such matters. They also find it hard to understand that no agency in this country can issue a disaccreditation press directive such as was issued in 1956 by the Ministry of Education of India. This directive stated that the "validity of certain degrees, diplomas, and certificates" offered by a certain five [American and British] institutions were "not recognized by the Indian Government for any purpose whatsoever."

This lack of any "disaccrediting" procedure in the United States has had serious implications for the reputation of American higher education in foreign countries. A former student who earned a M.A. degree in home economics education in 1954 at Utah State Agricultural College (one of our land-grant in-

stitutions), writes from Malaya . . . "I find they do not recognize any degree taken in the States . . ." and she asks help in "fighting for the recognition of the work done at Utah State." An inquiry in December from the president at Berea College in Kentucky states: "I have been informed that the government of the Federation of Malaya has a list of 33 colleges whose graduates may be employed by the government . . . I understand that some famous universities are included, but, for example, the University of Illinois and the University of Michigan are not . . . "

While the evidence on the Malaya case is not yet clear or complete, the comment of the Utah State graduate in her letter to the college is worth noting:

You might not believe me, but all this came about because of an American who was on the Board of Education here who told them that American degrees are easily purchased in the States so naturally they do not want to consider education obtained in the States.

There is evidence that such an attitude toward American higher education, in somewhat modified forms, appears throughout the former colonial possessions of Great Britain and in a number of European countries. Years ago the United States Consul General in Germany reported to the U. S. State Department about traffic in American academic degrees in Germany and told of a drawing in the Lustige Blaetter which showed a penny-in-the-slot machine, under which the in-

scription could be read, "Put your dollar in the slot and pull out an American doctor diploma."

And 30 years later, the Federal Republic of West Germany is still vitally concerned with this problem. It retains a full-time member of its Central Office for Foreign Education, who is director of cultural relations with foreign countries and educational institutes. One of his duties is to serve as a "disaccrediting" agency for his country in tracing down "false degrees." This German investigator has been most frustrated by the American degree mills, which he identifies as the largest such operation in the world. Interviewed for a New York City German-language newspaper in November of 1958, he is reported to have stated that. while in earlier years he received about 2000 inquiries concerning diploma-mills activities each year, he now receives almost 6000 annually.

And while this happens abroad, in the United States, not far up a historic Eastern river, a unique organization sells suggestions on the best way to obtain a degree from any one of a large copyrighted list of colleges which offer degrees in a variety of fields. The owner of this "middleman" operation has a Canadian counterpart, and both boast of agencies and branches all over the world. There is a loose international ring of such agents who serve each other as advance men, faculty members, and degreesigners.

The Forces of Miseducation ATTERS CONTROLLED TO THE REPORT CONTROLLED TO SERVICE OF CONTROLLED TO SERVICE OF CONTROLLED TO SERVICE OF CONTROLLED TO SERVICE OF CONTROL OF

ROBERT H. SNOW

In Phi Delta Kappan

 $\mathcal{M}_{ ext{HEN citizens}}$ are confronted with social problems, become aware of widespread delinquency, or the prevalence of low standards in taste and morality, it is customary to attribute these deplorable conditions to weakness or inefficiency on the part of educational or character-building institutions-the home, the church, the school-as though these were the exclusive sources of influence on attitudes and behavior. Only in rare cases are we inclined to examine other factors in our culture which might be more directly responsible.

There are, of course, many reasons, for this distortion in perspec-To name but one, we are inclined to use the terms "education" and "learning" interchange-Education usually

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interpreted as drawing forth of the individual's highest potentialities, the acquisition of characteristics which are socially constructive and advantageous. We fail to recognize that less desirable habits and attitudes are also learned. learns to be selfish, to be cruel, to practice drug addiction; one learns

every form of depravity.

If we wish to understand the learning processes through which our attitudes and characteristic behavior patterns are modified, we must analyze the forces at work in the total environment and recognize their impact on personality development. For it is the individual's total environment that constitutes his "school," and a true recital of his learning experiences include what he learns through interaction with environmental elements far removed from formalized educational institutions. It appears quite obvious that forces which profess no educational objectives dominate the cultural climate of our society and are far more influential than the duly constituted agencies of enlightenment.

When we examine the cultural climate in which we live in this twentieth century we cannot but agree that in a material sense it is a highly prosperous society. Goods and services have become available in great abundance. At the same time the media for the transmission of what we shall call "messages" have expanded tremendously through technological innovation. These have been used intensively to carry the persuasion of those who wish to market goods and services, and to convey the presentations of commercialized entertainment. Radio, television, the postal system, newspapers, motion pictures, the periodical press have been largely pre-empted as vehicles for salesmanship or diversion. Through virtually every waking moment, the individual is the target for an intensive barrage of persuasive appeals-or inducements to escape into fantasy. Wherever he may turn, they rain on his senses.

The forces which control this vast network of stimulation are committed to no educational objectives. And there is reason to believe that our fundamental attitudes, concepts, interests, and values are being conditioned in this process—that these apparently innocuous influences may have deep and lasting effects.

When, on occasion, the commercial persuaders, the producers of mass entertainment, or the custodians of the press are chided for social irresponsibility, they blandly assure us that, because they cultivate only superficial interests and transient impulses, their efforts can have no possible influence on fundamental matters of taste, character, or morality—and we usually believe them.

The time now is past due when we should awaken from our self-delusion on this point. It is clearly unreasonable to assume that environmental elements which impinge forcefully and consistently on the experience of Americans can produce no deep-seated effect. Today, there is no choice between being educated or uneducated. But there is a choice between being educated or miseducated. Let us consider briefly some of the more conspicuous features of miseducation.

FEATURES OF MISEDUCATION

Ceaselessly, minute by minute, hour by hour, the individual in our society is exhorted and cajoled, threatened and beguiled by those who seek to quicken his desire for material possessions. In all the messages, the underlying suggestion is clear; unless one can gain possession of these luxurious articles, life is not really worth living. Without them, all is drab and colorless; the spirit is unfulfilled. True distinction lies solely in being surrounded by expensive possessions and in displaying them conspic-Thus the messages give continuous reinforcement to a material view of life. Vanity and greed, far from being reprehensible,

are the hallmarks of successful liv-

Consider another aspect of our miseducation. Millions of our citizens depend on the press to keep them informed of important events, to supply cues as to what is significant in the current scene, to place the affairs of the world in focus. How do our newspapers discharge this responsibility? How accurate is the picture they convey?

The bill of fare presented by most of our large-circulation journals is familiar: gossip columns, daily bulletins of the astrologers, advice to the lovelorn, the comic strips. And in the news columns, extensive coverage of crimes and catastrophes—the more sordid the better, four pages of sports news, one-quarter page devoted to national and world issues of political significance, photos of the latest beauty queen, the four-car smashup. For this, it has been noted, Peter Zenger went to trial.

WHAT DO WE LEARN?

What do Americans learn from all this? What impressions are conveyed? That to be well informed it is sufficient to be intimately acquainted with the private lives of movie stars, crooners, athletic heroes, jailbirds. That violence, crime, and dissipation are the matters most worthy of our attention. That significance is equated with sensationalism.

Looming large, also, in the popular culture are the entertainment arts, typified by motion pictures

and the dramatizations of television. They divert us during leisure hours and hold us in readiness for the commercial spellbinders in our living rooms. These, too, are potent conditioners of human personality. They are vivid, impressive, produced with a high degree of technical skill. What do we learn from them?

A STEADY DIET

They feed us a steady diet of violence and brutality, erotic enticement, cheap sentimentalism, stereotyped fantasy. Characters in these dramas are two-dimensionalthe "good guys" and the "bad guys." Scientists are queer, professors are untidy and absentminded, heroines are young and pretty, foreigners are sinister. Fascination may be found only in horror and viciousness. Such are the dreams we are given to dream. And what, when criticized, do producers and merchants of these spectacles say? "What is wrong with a bit of innocent escapism?"

These are a few of the forces of miseducation to which we are constantly exposed, and which reinforce one another. One could add to the list indefinitely: industrial corporations and labor unions, with their institutional selfcongratulation, their own particular brands of economics; politicians and spell-binders of every stripe, eager to win our acceptance for their favorite nostrums; faddists and bigotsall enthusiastic practitioners of super salesmanship.

In each case the underlying message is the same: "Be receptive, be acquiescent; we will tell you what to do. No need to be rational; a few slogans are all you require, and we will supply them."

Thus education has its counterpart, miseducation, and in a very real sense the responsible institutions of enlightenment in our society are at war with the powers of darkness. Those seriously concerned with education, and to whom education means the development of the individual as a person, with broadening powers. higher levels of skill and discrimination, richer sensibilities, greater capacity for ordering his life wisely, should recognize this fact. They must realize, with Jacques Barzun, that "the school does not work in a vacuum, but rather in a vortex of destructive forces."

Everyone is exposed to the powerful and persuasive forces of miseducation. Relatively few share in the programs maintained by responsible institutions, and these for only brief periods of time. Miseducation is a torrent; education,

a trickling stream. These two currents of learning experience are flowing simultaneously in our society. One is largely controlled and directed by those who are concerned with the individual only to the extent that he may be exploited for financial or political advantage. The other flows from those institutions which are concerned with his development as a civilized being.

The sole weapon which can prevail against miseducation is education itself. Protests and appeals to conscience will not include those whose immediate fortunes aligned with miseducation to forego their advantage and join forces with those who educate. Censorship is useless. There is no effective means of shielding the public from miseducating influences through legal prohibitions or institutional pressures. The individual must strengthened to the point where he may resist miseducation, equipped with inner resources so that he will not be overwhelmed. This is the educational task to which we must dedicate ourselves.

- Today's mass communications media have, in one sense, returned children to the social scene which existed at the dawn of literature... Children and adults today see the same television programs and films, read the same mass prehistoric times children and adults heard the same oral accounts of heroic deeds or human misadventures.—Sara 1.
- Definition: TV channels—ruts worn by taking the line of least resistance.—From Cincinnati Enquirer.

A New Kind of Discipline

MARGARET MEAD

In Parents' Magazine

MERICAN styles of behavior change so rapidly that you can often find something is on the way in for one part of our society and on the way out for another. When rocking chairs were once again being recommended for welfare there were, of plenty of never-abandoned rockers in the kitchens of small farms and in small towns all over the country. The perpetual swing from what appears to be the way Grandmother did things to a modern fad and back again is often lamented by critics of American culture.

Now it's being said we are "going back to discipline." Those who have worked hard for a real concern for the growing child's individuality now feel all their gains are being lost. Those who objected to "a lot of new-fangled nonsense" about rearing children are pleased. But neither is totally right because both conceive of what is happening as a battle between two points of view, an endless tug of war, with those on one end of the rope winning this minute and those on the other the next.

What we are really seeing, however, is not just a tiresome swing from cuddle them to let 'em cry and back to cuddle them, from spinach and fairy tales to no spinach and no fairy tales, and so on. What we are

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witnessing today is the development of a whole new theory of child rearing suitable for twentiethcentury America.

No age has known so well that its children must be reared for change. And no age has had the resources of research, observation, and real concern with children—their fate and the implications of their fate for society. This search for an order, in which children will feel more secure and parents less harassed, is born of 50 years of experimentation, heartbreak, dedication, and discovery.

This is an age in which we are seeing the development in such an order. It is, in fact, from the children who were reared "permissively" that we now can expect and are actually getting a new kind of discipline for children. These young adults—now mothers and fathers—like their predecessors, want to improve on what their parents did. This is, really, the motor of progress within our kind of society. Parents hold up an ideal

that is impossibly high; children accept it as an ideal and later, although they find that their parents fell short of the ideal, they themselves are committed to carrying it on. So these young adults had the best of parenthood of the twenties and thirties—parents who believed that it would be possible to treat children as reasonable, cooperative human beings, and that parents who did not scold and threaten and punish could bring up children without "punitive superego."

But those parents didn't know how to effect the transformation from the model they themselves remembered—of a childhood of being stood in corners, sent to bed, and having one's mouth washed out with soap—into a new and workable discipline.

NEW GROUP OF PARENTS

Now we do have a group of young parents who were reared with this articulate ideal of a kind of democratic family life where the needs of each are considered by the others, decisions are arrived at by consultation, and each contributes his or her share to order and delight. This was the ideal which their anxious and dedicated parents never actually allowed, burdened as they were with a hidden desire to see their children rebel, talk back, and commit unpunished sins for which they themselves had been punished too heavily (so they felt). It is these young people-now parents - with larger families,

greater material urgency for some sort of real order and efficiency, and freed from the desire to commit these small rebellions towards which their parents goaded them, who can take the next step in our spiraling knowledge of how to rear children for a changing world.

NEW NOTE OF AUTHORITY

The note of authority now can come back into the voice. with a difference. The adult voice now can say-implicitly-"I am the person in charge of this situation, the person who will be held responsible if anything goes wrong, the person with the experience, the knowledge (or perhaps just the time) to take charge. I am in charge. I promise not to abuse my authority. But if you are to take part in this situation-at the dinner table, school expedition, picnicyou must obey those orders which I find it necessary to give."

This can now be said without apology, with a full recognition on the adult's part that obedience is asked, not in terms of the divine right of adults, but simply because "I am in charge." And because it is the nature of situations containing children that they need someone in charge, the person in charge can speak clearly, without hesitation, apology, or guilt, as a good policeman at a street corner, as a fireman at a fire, or the nurse in the doctor's office who says, "Come this way please," or "Now you can go."

But the other side of the coin,

the promise not to abuse the authority given by the situation, is just as imperative. Policemen do not interrupt one's crossing the street to say, "Take your fingers out of your mouth," the nurse in the doctor's office doesn't interrupt the visit to say, "Don't hum under your breath," and the fireman does not discuss your taste in fine art as he strips your gilt-framed oil paintings from the walls.

LIMITED INTERFERENCE

Along with our rejection of fear and punishment as part of the adult authority system has also gone a rejection of the kind of embracing interference with life which so many parents thought was their right-to put a stop to fidgeting whenever and wherever they found it; to demand attention at every moment no matter how dull their conversation and how exquisite the day-dream on which the child's inner eve was fixed; to invade the child's life under a thousand small pretexts. The new authority note does not go one little inch beyond the appropriate situation, and there will be an immediate flare-up if it is used. But in this we are only extending into the home what has been an American attitude towards authority in the army and at work-a deep resentment of its exercise outside proper limits. The revolution in child care in the last 25 years has been an attempt to state the limits and the tone of voice appropriate for teacher and parent.

There is one more thing to ask as we work at developing this new style of authority-and that is, what kind of adults may we expect from the children so reared? We know a great deal now about how children incorporate the style behavior of those around them, especially of adults whom they love and trust. What sort of still, small voice of conscience can we expect of children so reared to hear? We can, I think, expect it to be one that will say, "You are responsible. This is a situation in which you are in charge. What happens to you yourself, and to anyone else, is up to you. Take charge with a clear conscience."

Thus the voice, and so the child—taking a smaller child by the hand, quenching the fire the smaller child has set, taking the emergency telephone message—takes over and becomes in turn "a responsible person." Such a conscience keeps the child's eye firmly on the relationship between the self and the needs of the situation. It will be necessary, also, for these children to learn to take charge of themselves, to take themselves in hand, so that the bed is made, the room tidied, lessons studied, letters written.

"Who is responsible? I. Very well, get on with it," will be the still, small voice of the well-reared child of the twentieth century, enforced by a childhood spent among adults who were trusted and did not fail one's trust, who took charge and never abused their responsibility.

Paperbacks—The Best Invention Since the Sandwich

WILLIAM D. BOUTWELL

In NEA Journal

F word got around that your local automobile dealer had cut the price of Fords or Chevrolets to onetenth of the standard rate, you can imagine what a scramble there'd be to buy them. In another product area-books-this deep price cut has occurred, and the bargain-hunting public has rushed in. The \$4.95 novel that makes the best-seller list with a 20,000 sale runs up a 300,-000 sale when it appears nine months later in a 35c paperback edition. It is not uncommon for a paperback best-seller to top the two million sales level.

There are those, of course, who do not count paperbacks as books. They are still weeping over the decline of book-reading in our country. But the teachers who taught our generation to read and love books may enjoy knowing that we annually buy more than 300 million paperbacks.

All this growth has taken place with the usual American speed. The current paperback revolution in the United States is only 20 years old. Three forces sparked it: Chemistry provided a new dependable glue for binding and rubber plates for high-speed printing. The bookstore moved off the back street to the corner newsstand, drugstore,

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the busy variety store, and the crowded supermarket. Educators and advertisers promoted the idea that reading can be fun. "The paperbacks," says Clifton Fadiman, "are democratizing reading. They are conferring on it the simple, healthy status of a normal habit."

The average citizen has welcomed the paperback revolution with open arms and open pocket-book. But the paperback revolution hasn't won over everybody yet. Librarians and school executives buy books with public funds, thus feel duty bound to get years of service from their purchases. Furthermore, after looking over the stands stocked with murder mysteries, westerns, and accounts of bedroom escapades, some of them ask. "Where are the paperback books which could be useful to us?"

The answer to this last question will be found in *Paperbound Books In Print*, a semiannual guide to 6000 paperbacks. Who has the longest list of volumes after his name—longer than Earl Stanley

Gardner's? William Shakespeare. The volume lists British and American authors, and includes most titles found on book-reading lists. Included among the writers are Dickens, Defoe, Austen, Hardy, Conrad, and Orwell. Also numerous Americans-early and late: Hawthorne, Emerson, Melville, Thoreau, Twain, Poe, Steinbeck, Faulkner. The Greeks never had it so good. Plato has 23 volumes after his name. Other out-of-copyright Greeks include Sophocles, Euripides, Aeschylus, and Aristotle.

Nevertheless, educators with reservations have a point. Books that teachers want for certain subjects and for use in elementary and junior-high-school grades are only now beginning to appear in paperback. But the future is bright.

And here are some inside tips on special categories of paperbacks; For poetry look for the new Dell Laurel editions. Dell and Pocket are publishing the individual plays of Shakespeare with excellent notes and introductions. For history check the many Mentor and Signet editions including those by the matchless Edith Hamilton Greece and Rome. For the standard classics you will find wellprinted editions by Pocket, Dell, Bantam, New American Library, and TAB. Other bargains will be found among Viking Portables, Premier Samplers, and Modern Library offerings. And don't overlook the paperbacks now beginning to flow from the university presses.

"Fine," you say, "but how can I

drink at this new fountain of good reading? Only rarely do I find in the racks at my local drugstore the kind of book you describe."

Too true! You will, of course, find them in some gift-card stores, in bargain basements of big-city bookshops, in college bookshops, and in shops specializing in paperbacks. But suppose these sources are not available to you. If this is the case I have some suggestions to make. Ask your librarians to order Paperbound Books in Print from which any book indexed may be ordered from the long list of publishers, and ask her to invite publishers to send new lists as issued and post them. Urge your librarian to arrange for service from a local distributor. Selected titles made available and for sale on racks in the school library or school store have been patronized liberally.

Then you should watch Teacher List of paperback books. This requires explanation. All teachers who sponsor the Scholastic student paperback book clubs—Arrow Book Club (middle grades), Teen Age Book Club (junior-high school), and Campus Book Club (senior-high school)—may order from an accompanying list of books exclusively for school faculty members and at liberal discounts from list prices.

But you will never get all the books you want until you become more demanding. Put some pressure on the paperbook dealers and publishers.

It's Time for a Breakthrough

KENNETH W. LUND

In The Nation's Schools

T is time for a breakthrough to a new plan of education for all high-school students. The plan should make full use of our technical ability to design a different type of school building. It should provide all types of electronic aids. It should organize the time of teachers in such a way as to make full use of their talents.

Suppose we dream a bit about what pattern the new school might take in the secondary field. The school I envision will need as many (or more) better qualified teachers than we now have. However, better utilization of teacher time, coupled with the products of scientific discovery, will make student learning far more effective and will make teaching a more satisfying and rewarding career.

The high school for tomorrow should have quite a different type of building than we now have. At its core should be a set of listening and viewing booths in which the student would spend one-third or more of his time. In this booth he would put on earphones and dial on telephone equipment the appropriate lesson in physics, history, or English literature. These lessons would be on film in each subject

area and would be shown continuously in a central building of the metropolitan area being served. By dialing in, the student could view Lesson 32 in physics while thousands of other students would be dialing the same or different lessons on closed-circuit television.

In this new type of school, teachers would meet several times a week with students in small groups, preferably only six to 10 students per group. These groups would permit the personal relationship between students that everyone talks about but seldom achieves.

These group sessions would not be for lectures or for giving information. These tasks would be accomplished by televised film. Rather, a group session would be the time for the discussion of difficult lesson content, for clarification and enrichment through additional illustrative material, and for discussion of the student's written work. Students could easily see and hear the same filmed lesson twice if they didn't understand the material at the first presentation. They would use the group sessions for

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tutorial assistance, for group discussion, and for learning to express new concepts.

In conjunction with each televised lesson and each unit, a modern objective type of test could be provided. The student could obtain such a test from a machine. could take the test using an electrographic pencil, return it to another machine for scoring, and receive his results at once for maximum effect in discovering deficiencies in his learning. A copy of the results could be automatically preserved and would be available to his teacher and his guidance counselor in discussing his progress. When his performance was poor enough to warrant it, he would dial the lesson for a TV repeat, after which he would take another test. This method would provide appropriate learning opportunities for students at all levels of ability, and would do so in a manner that would permit each student to proceed at his own pace.

INDIVIDUALIZED WORK

Each student would spend at least a third of his time at his own desk with his own books and in the libraries, shops, laboratories, and project rooms doing individualized work. He would be able to pace himself at his optimum level and would be responsible to his guidance counselor in weekly individual conferences where his progress report (electronic) would be reviewed and plans made for the week ahead. Parents could receive

a report prepared by automation equipment, addressed, and mailed with minimum cost and no teacher time wasted.

The teacher would have a personal office and conference table. Here he would have a personal professional library and closed-circuit viewing and listening equipment for group purposes and for personal use. Approximately 60 percent of the time would be scheduled with group sessions for students, 20 percent for individual conferences and parent consultation, and 20 percent for personal preparation, viewing, faculty committee meetings, and other professional activities.

THE TEACHER'S WORK

The teacher would be primarily responsible for helping each student prepare for end-of-course examinations, for broadening his understanding through discussion and interpretation, and for noting progress in relation to educational goals not readily assessed by the instruments of evaluation. In this more personalized school a close contact between teacher and student would be of inestimable value in mastering conversational techniques in foreign-language classes, in developing writing skills in English and all subject matter fields, and in developing powers of oral expression and critical thinking.

The teacher could handle eight or 10 groups three to five times a week. However, he would have no responsibility for classroom management, study-hall and lunch-

room supervision, and in the main would be free from the traditional time-consuming tasks of scoring homework assignments, which would be handled electronically. In language and mathematics classes much of the daily work would consist of personalized aid to the students in clarifying subtle points, analyzing performance errors, and motivating students to attempt successively more difficult tasks.

The new school would have many more laboratories for science project work, laboratories for listening and speaking into tape recorders, and art classrooms for creative work. The library would be the heart of such a program, and a personalized program of developmental reading would be planned to test each student's mettle. The flexibility of this program would mean a wide range of materials at varying levels of difficulty and cooperation of teacher and librarian.

NEW PLAN NECESSARY

If this presentation were being made to my professional colleagues in person, I can well imagine the looks on their faces by this time. No doubt they would assume I had taken the wrong pill when I needed a scdative. None of us finds it easy to take a fresh look at what we have been doing for a long time. However, nothing that I have suggested would require new scientific discoveries, although undoubtedly new methods could be discovered to develop new equipment that would do the job better at lower cost. A

planning conference could be arranged that would produce a much more comprehensive design of far greater effectiveness than the one I have outlined here. But the point is: A new plan is necessary.

The alternative is depressing. Are we to go on duplicating our present methods until we serve 12 million high-school students by 1970, with more crowded classrooms, less qualified teachers, and an educational pattern little changed from 1900 or earlier? Or are we willing to take a fresh look at the goals and purposes of education and mobilize our American scientific and technological ingenuity to achieve that goal?

We want our children to get the best possible education. I would welcome a Henry Steele Commager to teach history at my school, the Van Dorens to teach English literature, a Harvey White to teach physics, and a Baxter to teach Shakespeare. I would want my student to have available historical and scientific films that far exceed in quality of presentation the best efforts of the classroom teacher serving under current limitations. Our classrooms should have access to the world with the aid of moddisplay techniques, models, film portrayals of atomic reactors, turbines, and machines. I would welcome the chance to raise the status of teachers by freeing them of all onerous nonteaching duties, and make them part of an organization producing a quality product under optimum conditions.

How Can We Wipe Out This Pernicious Infection?

Pornography . . . The New Black Plague

In National Parent-Teacher

ARE you one who has felt the shock of seeing among a child's possessions some of the filth that is being sent to young people through the mails? Even if you aren't, you can imagine the horror and heartache that such a discovery has brought to parents. Mailed pornography knows no boundaries. It infiltrates every part of the country, reaching children and youth on farms and in cities, in suburbs and slums, in stern homes and trustingly permissive ones. No child is safe from this most ruthless of all rackets-the distribution of pornography by mail.

The material comes in a plain envelope, bearing the child's name. The pictures inside defv description. They are not just nudes. They picture the naked bodies of men and women, often boys and girls, singly and together, in every imaginable position of lewdness, intimacy, and perversion. Some of them masquerade as "art photographs." Others are portraits to be hung in a youth's room as a reminder of "how joyous life can be if one is modern." Other pictures are on the backs of playing cardssamples of complete decks that the recipient is urged to order and resell to his friends, card by card, at a commission that sounds fabulous to a voungster.

Where does the torrent of smut

Reported from National Parent-Teacher, LIV (September 1959), 20-22.

come from? Who is responsible? The child who receives the degrading stuff may be innocent of wrongdoing. As a young art student, he may have answered a magazine advertisement for art materials. Or he may have sent a dime or a quarter for a train or a model airplane offered at a bargain as a come-on. Such innocent actions can put his name on a "sucker list" for commercialized smut. Or the child may have done nothing at all to bring on the deluge. His name may have been taken from a high-school yearbook, the membership list of a youth club, or a newspaper story about school activities. The Post Office Department has estimated that between 700,000 and a million children will receive unsolicited obscene and pornographic material through the mails this year.

How does an obscene picture affect a child or youth who sees it? Children are by nature curious, daring, breathlessly eager for new sensations. On some guileless minds such a picture may barely register. On others the impression may quickly blur and dissolve. But on mind after mind the impression is likely to be powerful and lasting.

Pictures of obscenity and perversion may excite children, giving them a feeling of being grown up. Or they may make all intimacy seem foul and disgusting. The U.S. Senate Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency believes pornography may be most damaging to the child who has had little or no sex education. Testifying before the Subcommittee, Dr. Benjamin Karpman, chief psychotherapist at St. Elizabeths Hospital in Washington, D. C., said, "You can take perfectly healthy boys or girls and by exposing them to abnormalities you can virtually crystallize their habits for the rest of their lives."

Arthur E. Summerfield, U. S. Postmaster General, charges the purveyors of pornography with contributing to the alarming increase in juvenile delinquency. "Sex criminals and sex murderers," he says, "almost always have a long record of addiction to pornographic and sadistic material." We had better heed the implications of this statement; children who have never been exposed to such material may become the victims of sex criminals who have been exposed to it. It is to the interest of all, therefore, that all children be protected from this immoral sewage.

But why doesn't the Post Office Department do something about this wholesale promotion and distribution of filth through the mails? Over the years it has diligently tried to keep the mails clear of indecent matter. But it has met powerful opposition from the people who stand to profit by the corruption of children. Occasionally resistance has come from others from people dedicated to freedom of the press. Confusing liberty with license, these people unwittingly assist the purveyors of pornography. Thousands of investigations and arrests of persons have been made.

Nevertheless, the quantity of filth in the mails is increasing every day. This is partly because the smut sellers, knowing that tremendous profits can be realized from a small investment, are willing to risk a small fine or a light prison sentence. It is partly because certain courts, notably those in Los Angeles and New York, where most of the mail order business in pornography originates, have been extremely cautious in their decisions on obscenity. Their liberal rulings have established virtual sanctuaries in which dealers in obscenity operate with impunity.

A FORWARD STEP

However, in 1958, as a result of persistent urging by the Post Office Department, an important forward step was taken: The obscenity statute was amended. Previously distributors of pornography could be prosecuted only in the district in which the obscene material was mailed. The amended law makes it possible to prosecute the merchants of filth at intermediate offices and at the point of delivery, where the actual damage is done.

And it authorizes fines up to \$10,-000 for second offenders and imprisonment for 10 years. We now have a powerful means of stamp-

ing out a vile racket.

The Post Office Department has appealed to the nation to defeat commercialized pornography and has found a strong ally in the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. The Action Committee of the Congress already was acutely aware of the situation and had been studying the problem of pornography and its impact on American children and youth. When, at the annual convention last May, the message from the Post Office Department was delivered, it was ready with recommendations. It urged that state and local units cooperate in the analysis and solution of the problem. The Committee further recommended that each state congress of the organization, with professional legal assistance, compile a summary and interpretation of its state laws on obscenity and distribute copies to all P.T.A.'s in the state. Through its own National Congress publications, the Action Committee itself proposes to disseminate similar information on federal laws for the assistance of state and local organizations. Unanimously the convention approved these recommendations and voted to support the Postmaster General's plan for combating the distribution of pornographic materials.

The National Congress has made it clear that it is not setting itself

up as a censor of literature and art or as an agent for the destruction of freedom of expression. It realizes that there are differences of taste and judgment about literature and art. But in this matter of mail-order obscenity there are no differences of opinion. The thousands of urgent protests to the Post Office Department prove beyond doubt that most Americans have no difficulty distinguishing between filth and art.

What can you do right now?

First, you can carry out the Postmaster General's instructions. When obscene materials come to your home, or as a teacher, into your hands, you are urged to take two simple steps:

1. Save all materials received, including envelopes and enclos-

ures.

2. Report the matter immediately to the Postmaster General or to the local postmaster, and turn the materials over to him.

And you can urge your own P.T.A. to establish and support a local action committee.

These barons of obscenity exploit the innocence of children for profit. If parents, teachers, and other concerned citizens back up the Post Office Department, if we insist on vigorous prosecutions and maximum penalties for the guilty, we can defeat the vicious purveyors of pornography. The job will take perseverance, impatience, and pluck. The stakes are high: Either we wipe out this new black plague or the pernicious infection will spread throughout our society.

Multimillion-Dollar High School Dilemma.

EUGENE STULL

In Cosmopolitan

AM principal of one of America's new multimillion-dollar high schools. Schools like ours—Abington, Pennsylvania, Senior High—have been called "comprehensive" by their supporters and "supermarkets" by their critics. Both of these terms refer to the major aim of these schools: to meet the educational needs of everyone within the framework of a single institution. By any name, however, their increasing numbers make it clear that they are the schools of the future.

Will they be able to meet the future's needs? I sincerely think so. But it would be unrealistic to deny that, in trying to be everything to everybody, they face some serious problems.

These problems of modern high schools have nothing to do with money. They are a matter of values and attitudes. We find, for example, there are some people who expect us to do even more than we are doing. Parents expect our health service to take over functions of the private physician. We are asked to participate in disciplinary problems that have little to do with the school. For example, the father of one student recently came to me with a peculiar request. His 15-year-old son had been wearing a long, ducktail haircut. "Will Eugene Stull is Principal of, Abington Senior High School, Pennsylvania. Reported from Cosmopolitan, CXLVII (September 1959), 54-59. (By permission of Cosmopolitan Magazine.)

you," he asked me, "please see that he gets his hair cut?"

This request illustrates what has become one of our biggest problems: the attitudes of parents. High schools are continually being urged to step in and take over whatever duties or tasks parents find too unpleasant, or too troublesome, to handle. This, in spite of the fact that we have already branched out into such fields of instruction as sex, the importance of thrift, choice of mate, and behavior on dates. It is high time the public decides how far it wants us to go in this direction

Are there further problems? Yes, and one of them is rather puzzling. For, although schools such as ours are the finest in the country, there are some people who seem to take a rather light view of their importance. We have one student, for example, who has remained in school somewhat against his own wishes—for the sum of \$25 a week! His father pays it to him as the only means of keeping him here.

The boy was on the verge of dropping out and getting a job. His reason: he needed more money to operate his car.

Some parents are guilty of the same general attitude. One day Mary's mother explained that Mary was absent because she was doing a television commercial for Pink Pamper Shampoo. One boy was 'kept home, his mother explained, so he could hold the ladder while she picked cherries!

Usually we who must deal with this sort of thing prefer to regard it as thoughtlessness rather than outright disrespect for the school. Unfortunately, it is not always possible to do so. A case in point is that of a mother who telephoned this spring to ask that her son be excused so he might run errands in preparation for his brother's wedding. When she was told that this was not considered sufficient reason, she glibly inquired, "Would he be excused if I said he had a doctor's appointment?"

DISRESPECT FOR LEARNING

There was a time when schools regarded parents as their staunchest allies—when a teacher's suggestion that a youngster had misbehaved in school was almost certain to bring punishment at home. Unfortunately, this attitude is changing. Today it is not uncommon to find parents and children ganging up to evade the school's rules. Many of the attitudes that are a source of trouble today got their start in the 1930's as a part of the doctrine

known as "progressive" education. After more than 20 years, we are in a position to assess the amount of progress it has produced. And the answer can only be that, far from advancing education, progressives and their "revolution" have been responsible for serious damage. Their belief in pupil freedom and mild control (if any) turned many a classroom into bedlam. Moreover, their assertion that report cards and grades were evil things, and that a student should be promoted whether he did passing work or not, is one of the reasons why, today, virtually all schools are faced with growing numbers of "nonachievers"—students who have never mastered even the minimum essentials of learning.

We in Abington have never gone in for progressive education. Our own students who need extra help are few. But when we find some who do, we are able, thanks to our extensive facilities, to give remedial help. In view of what we are accomplishing, it is ironic that one of the biggest complaints heard is that educational plants like ours are needlessly extravagant. Such allegations are grossly unfair.

It is undeniable that in this country today we are spending more for school construction than ever before. But we also are spending more for construction of every kind. There is a new elementary school in New Jersey which cost \$18.09 per square foot to build, but 10 miles up the road

there is a fat-rendering plant whose cost per square foot was \$25.75. In Lynchburg, Virginia, the new elementary school was cheaper, comparatively, than a certain drive-in restaurant! As for Abington High, its \$5,500,000 price tag has been called "a whale of an expenditure for a town of only 50,000." Yet a figure of that magnitude seems reasonable when you consider that in the next 50 years some 100,000 boys and girls will receive their instruction there.

WHAT WE MUST DO

If they and the other high-school students of the future are to receive an even better education than they are getting today, there are a number of things that should be done. They are changes, however, which cannot be carried out solely by educators. They involve changes in public attitudes, and therefore are the responsibility of everyone. Some of them are:

We must restore the prestige of scholarship. Ours is the only era in human history that has failed to respect learning. It is essential to reacquire that respect if our society is to survive. (Fortunately, the situation already seems to be changing for the better.)

We must restore respect for the teacher. As a co-worker and a pal, he has been a washout. This is not his fault; it's simply that one doesn't often accept instruction from a pal, or make his best effort for a co-worker. If a teacher is to teach he must be regarded as a

superior-at least within the confines of the classroom.

We must make discipline mean something. The high-school student almost never receives any. Being able to break the rules with impunity, he tends to lose regard for them and for the authorities who are supposed to enforce them. The solution lies not in stricter rules, but in putting teeth into those we now have.

We must modify the stress on athletics and other extracurricular activities. These things are valuable within limits. But it should be borne in mind that they are just what their name implies—extras—and not the main business of school.

We must decide what we want our schools to be. The progressives, who claimed to know all the answers, were given their chance and they have failed. Now the question is: Where do we go from The criticism of large, modern schools like Abington High has raised an issue that must be decided one way or the other. And only the people who vote for the individual school bond issues can say what sort of education Americans believe in. To do that, they've got to give the problem some serious thought.

Above all, we must never assume that money is the only answer. Money is a great help, but it can only solve a certain percentage of our problems. For education is an intangible and, as such, requires proper attitudes and values on the part of society if it is to succeed.

Two Programs Now Operating

Federal Funds-Impetus to Research in Education

ROY M. HALL

In The School Executive

OLUTIONS to some of our current problems in education can be found only through research. Research efforts in the field of education have, to date, been wholly inadequate when compared with those in industry and the physical and social sciences.

During the past three years, however, two federal programs have been set in operation which will substantially increase both the quantity and quality of research in education. The Cooperative Research Program (Public Law 531), established first, was given a broad charge by Congress in terms of the subject area to be covered. This law authorizes the Commissioner of Education to enter into jointly financed cooperative arrangements with colleges and universities and state educational agencies for the conduct of research, surveys, and demonstrations in the field of education. The second-Title VII of the National Defense Education Act-is more specific in the research content which it supports, concentrating on research and experimentation in newer educational media. The financial arrangements between the Office of Education and the participating groups under Public Law 531 are in the form of a fixed-price contract. The arrangement for conducting projects under

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Title VII may take the form of either a contract or a grant between the Office of Education and the contractor.

Both programs operate in essentially the same manner. They are directed to the colleges and universities which have always been the fountainhead of creative and productive investigations into the physical structure of our world and the social structure of our society. A special effort has been made to acquaint these institutions with the existence of available support for high quality research endeavors. But the initiation of research under both programs is centered on the individual investigator.

Advisory committees appointed by the staffs of each program evaluate the studies submitted and select the most promising. The staffs continue to play important roles in the development of the projects, assisting in every possible way in the accomplishment of the research. The operating procedures of these two programs are in every way de-

signed to provide support for competent researchers who are interested in turning their attention to problems in education without restricting their creativity, interfering with the conduct of their research, or dictating the direction of their interests.

While Public Law 531—the Cooperative Research Program—was
passed in 1954, the first authorization to the program was made for
the fiscal year 1957. During that
year \$1 million was appropriated
and for the past two years this has
been increased to \$2.3 million and
\$2.7 million, respectively. For 1960
the appropriation will be \$3.2 million. University contributions to the
program have increased the total
funds devoted to research in education during the first three years
of operation to nearly \$10 million.

Research covers a wide range of subject matter and has been carried out in a variety of institutions. Up to June 30 of this year, 212 projects had been contracted. They were located in 83 colleges and universities in 39 states, Puerto Rico, Guam, and the District of Columbia. Fourteen state education agencies have participated. Final reports have been received on 57 projects and within the next year another 96 will be completed.

THREE-YEAR RESULTS

A three-year period represents only an instant of time in the development of a research program. The process of research is painstaking and laborious. The sophisticat-

ed researcher knows that he is not going to answer all the questions in an area of interest through the conduct of a discrete experimental study. He will have made a most significant contribution if he can add a cubit of knowledge or assist in opening the area to further questions and investigation. The assessment of the success of a research program is complicated by the process of research itself, which is a never-ending search for truth. But a look at the record of the past three years of operation under the Cooperative Research Program indicates some real accomplishment:

1. A surprisingly large number of studies, completed and in progress, appear to be leading us to a point where significant publications to practitioners can be developed relating to such problems as the gifted child, mental retardation, pupil retention, classroom grouping, and school organization.

2. Researchers from many disciplines—psychology, sociology, anthropology—are turning their attention to educational problems. This development has reached the stage where a joint project was sponsored last summer by the Office of Education and the National Academy of Sciences bringing together outstanding educators and social scientists for a survey of research needs relating to education.

3. The quality of research supported by the program is constantly on the rise. Analysis of the research recommended for support during the past three years has seen a marked change in the research design, procedures, and statistical analyses used by the investigators.

4. The studies supported by the program are beginning to emerge

into significant attacks on pressing problem areas. As the number and quality of research efforts in particular areas increase, the redirection of research in that field and ultimate field testing of concepts and theories will result in specific guidelines for practitioners in program planning.

Accomplishments in the second program-Research in Newer Educational Media-must be spelled out in the most tentative way. Appropriations have been available for only six months, but the response by researchers interested in investigating newer educational media has been remarkable. During its first year of existence, the program received more than 350 separate research proposals from individuals, agencies, and institutions in 40 different states and the District of Columbia. Sixty-nine of these proposals have been approved for federal support, and 23 grant awards have been made, totaling \$1,360,656. The remainder of the approved projects will be awarded grants during fiscal year 1960, subject to fund availability.

The three major areas of investigation covered by the 69 approved proposals are: (1) research concerned with the inherent instructional characteristics of the newer media of communication; (2) investigations of the effects of the

newer media on the presentation of academic subject matter; and (3) studies concerned with techniques of preparing teachers to utilize these media with maximum effectiveness.

Trends already identified in the Title VII proposals indicate an interest in the interrelationships of several media in the teaching-learning process, rather than with the contribution of one medium in isolation; in determining the degree to which the newer media can be used to individualize instruction efficiently and economically; and in the contributions of the newer media to effective and higher cognitive learning, rather than merely to the mastery of specific information.

If educators can provide intelligent direction and exhibit serious intent, federal participation in research in education can assist in leading us toward a major breakthrough in our knowledge about the educative process in the next decade. The available funds are still inadequate but they can and will be increased if the productive results justify expansion. The next few years will determine the role federal participation can play in providing stimulation and leadership to fortify the existing agencies for research.

UCH of what passes for research today is the alignment of data in orderly piles, hallowed by sacred hymns sung to the goddess Objectivity in the shrine of Statistics.—William B. Bean.

Revealing the History of Education

Analysis of Old Textbooks

JOHN A. NIETZ

In School and Society

HE writer for many years has been making a collection of text-books between 60 and 400 years old in all the fields commonly taught in the elementary and secondary schools. Now numbering over 8000, the collection is being gradually transferred as a gift to the University of Pittsburgh Library. The comments which follow are a few of the historically interesting observations which may be made by an analysis of such books.

The aims of teaching various subjects are commonly revealed by the textbooks from which they were taught. First, most old texts contain either prefaces or notes to teachers in which the authors commonly discussed the which they intended their books to fulfil. Analysis of these prefaces reveals that the stated aims not only vary somewhat according to authors, but also with the times. Earlier stated aims often were considerably different than later ones. For example, Emma Willard's American History (1846) said: "We have, indeed, been desirous to cultivate the memory, the intellect, and the taste. But much more anxious have we been to sow the seeds of virtue . . . "

"To sow the seeds of virtue" is a frequently mentioned aim. But an analysis of the prefaces of 53 John A. Nietz is a member of the faculty at the University of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. Reported from School and Society, LXXXVII (September 12, 1959), 340-41

American history textbooks published before 1885 also shows several others: to present a clear conception of those deeds which may properly be imitated; to develop thinking on the part of the pupils; to help develop good citizens; to show the results of undesirable action; and to show relationship between cause and results.

A later study of 87 junior-highschool American history texts published between 1885 and 1955 shows that these aims were emphasized most frequently: to develop interest in the study of American history; to help develop good citizenship; to develop patriotism; to present a clear history of our country; and to follow the American Historical Association's recommendations. It may be noted that the first, fourth, and fifth aims of the later study are different from any in the earlier study. Similar studies of the aims in other subjectmatter fields show comparable evolutionary changes.

Another way to determine earlier aims is to analyze the actual content of the textbooks. For example, the study of the American history textbooks before 1885 showed that an average of 45 percent of their content dealt with war, 19 percent with government and politics, and less than 2 percent with the broader social and cultural matters. A study of the texts published after 1885 shows they devoted only an average of 20 percent to war and 14 percent to government and politics.

At this point it may be interesting to observe that an analysis of the 1837 McGuffey Third Reader devoted 33 percent to religion and 11 percent to morals, while the popular 1879 edition devoted 9 percent to religion and 25 percent to morals.

Marked changes in the content of arithmetic books also have taken place. Such topics as alligation, barter, duodecimals, permutation and combinations, and tare and tret were commonly treated in early arithmetic. Also tables dealing with troy weight, apothecaries weight, wine measure, ale and beer measure, land measure, and many other strange tables were to be found in the old arithmetics. Similar evolutionary changes in the content of the textbooks in other fields throw much light on the history of what has been taught in American schools of the past.

Besides the content, there even have been marked changes in the arrangement of the materials in the textbooks. These are revealed in the presence and absence of various teaching and learning aids. Definite changes appear in the use of such aids as introductions: tables of contents (many old books had none); indexes; inclusion of quesabsent in older tions (largely books); use of such visual aids as pictures, maps, charts, plates, figures, and models; suggested use of microscopes, blackboards, drawings, demonstrations, and pupil excursions; tables, summaries, appendices, and written exercises.

This presentation is merely illustrative of the value that analyses of old textbooks may serve. It surely is revealing that before 1830 the number of Latin and Greek texts far exceed those of any other field. And that nineteenth century physiology and hygiene books gave more of their space to the nervous system than is given nowadays but were less concerned with the subject of disease than are textbooks of the present century.

It is my belief that no history of American education dealing with what has been taught in the past can be complete without dealing with the school textbooks that were most commonly used in the different periods of history.

HERE is only one person with whom you can profitably compare yourself, and this person is your yesterday self.—From You.

How to Undermine Junior's Teacher

STANLEY and JANICE BERENSTAIN

In Better Homes and Gardens

T'S no secret that teachers have problems. The moonlighting male high-school instructor pumping hi-test gasoline into his students' sports cars has become a classic illustration of teachers' financial plight. It's also well known that most teachers are handicapped by outsize classes, inadequate supplies of textbooks and materials, and outdated facilities. But we've overlooked perhaps the peskiest problem of all: parents! Most of us parents work so hard at undermining Junior's teacher that it's a wonder she (or he) can do the job at all.

Some acts of teacher-sabotage are committed even before Junior ventures inside the school. "Oh, you'll just *love* kindergarten," says Mother to little Baxter. "All you do is play and play and play! And there's this wonderful, pretty lady

with a sweet voice who reads you wonderful' stories."

So the big day comes and off floats Baxter, fully expecting kindergarten to be a magical dreamland presided over by the Blue Fairy. When it turns out to be nothing more than a big room with stuff all put away in closets, and chairs to sit on, and a big rug to rest on, and milk to drink (white milk, at that!), and a lady who keeps telling you to sit down, he's fit to be tied. The lady considers doing just that.

Once the term gets under way, the agony in the kindergarten begins in earnest. Julia shows up with a damp little creature she claims is her brother, "My Mommy says can he be in kindergarten today 'cause she has to go somewhere!" Howard cheeks in four Mondays in a row without milk money. "Mommy dint have no change, just a thirty dollar." (The class as a whole is into teacher for a cool \$6.45.) A little bottle marked "Janie's Nose Drops-2 drops in each nostril every hour" turns up on teacher's desk.

Then there's that unspeakable crew of mommies who send kids to kindergarten in clothes they can't manage—clover-leaf zippered snow-pants, and coats with 3/4-inch buttons and 1/2-inch buttonholes. Is it any wonder there's a desperate Blue Fairy shortage?

Reported from Better Homes and Gardens, XXXVII (September 1959), 38, 42, 131-33.

The kindergarten teacher wonders why parents can't get it through their heads that kindergarten is not just a glorified sitting service. But the first-grade teacher has her problems also. She can tell about parents with first-grade "choke-up," caused by the realization that next term Junior will be in First Grade! Little Junior, who just yesterday was crawling around the floor eating dust balls, will have to learn to read and write and do sums! First-grade choke-up may come to Mother as early as the day when Junior brings home from kindergarten that fateful little card. the one that says, "At the opening of school on Thursday, September 10, Junior Jones will be placed in grade one, room seven. His teacher will be Miss Guilfoyle."

"Miss Guilfovle, huh?" Mother tries to remember which one is Miss Guilfoyle. Is it the tall slim one, or the little blond with bangs? Whoever she is, what can she know what it means to raise a child, to nourish him, to walk the floor nights, to bring him through measles and chicken pox and cut knees. . . . A terrible thought occurs to Mother. Suppose this Miss Guilfovle person doesn't like him, just takes an irrational dislike to him. then decides he's just stupid. Then a really terrible thought occurs to her. Suppose it turns out that Junior is stupid, or has a reading block. or is a mirror writer, or isn't ready for number concepts! Mother may be a perfectly reasonable person, but this kind of worry is a fearsome

thing. It can turn her into a rumor monger. "Miss Guilfoyle? Oh yes, I know about her. She's a terror, screams at them from the time they get in to the time they leave." "Miss Guilfoyle—isn't she the one who . . .?" And so on until the dossier is complete.

The tragic thing here is that almost inevitably such gossip is communicated to Junior, and, though it's seldom fatal, it can lead to serious complications. Things like reading block, mirror writing, and number trouble, for instance.

FIRST P.T.A. MEETING

Then Junior is in the first grade and it is time for the parents really to get into the act. It is time for the first P.T.A. meeting. The purpose of this meeting is to give the teacher a chance to go over the year's program, and in this way answer any questions the parents might have. In addressing the fourteen mommies and six daddies who have jammed themselves into the tiny desks, Miss Guilfovle makes one thing very clear. "I'd like to say right off that I'm not going to discuss individual children tonight." Disappointed groan from parents. "I'll be happy to talk about your children later on when there's more to talk about but that's not the purpose tonight. Since reading is the most important part of the first grade, I'm going to discuss our reading program."

Her talk is a little gem of exposition. She's very careful to explain how different children are "ready"

to read at different times. She makes it very clear that the fact that Child A is ready for a certain reader today and Child B is not, has nothing to do with intelligence. She says that she wishes to explain that while the class has been divided into three groups-the faster group, the middle group, and the slower group—this has nothing to do with how smart the child is. "May I stress that fact," she says. "It has to do only with how ready he is to read, how ready his eye muscles are to do the job of scanning, how well he understands right and left, and a whole complex of factors. A child may be in the late reading group and be a brilliant child. One more important point-don't make a big thing of this with your children. It's all done very carefully. There is absolutely no stigma attached to being in the late reading group, and there's absolutely no honor attached to being in the early reading group. And remember, it has nothing to do with intelligence. Now, are there any questions?"

Seven hands shoot up.

"Yes? The gentleman in the check jacket."

"I'm Joe's father. Which group is my kid in, the smart group, the ordinary group, or the dumb group?"

During the discussion that follows, Miss Guilfoyle spots a number of other likely saboteurs. Julia's mother once read a book and is an expert on the methods of teaching reading. Jonathan's father, an IQ fancier, is disappointed to hear that

the first IQ test isn't given until second grade, and protests vociferously when he learns that it's the policy of the school never to give out the results anyhow.

Freddy's mother wants to know if it's all right if she takes Freddy to Florida for a few weeks starting next Tuesday. Harvey's mother wants to know whether or not they serve chocolate milk in the lunch room. But Miss Guilfoyle has one consolation—she's not alone. Similar discussions are taking place throughout the school.

Most teachers realize that bringing up kids is pretty debilitating work and they are willing to forgive us most of our trespasses against them. They know they can't expect us to be paragons of objectivity where Junior is concerned. All the teacher asks is that we keep our sabotage to a minimum, that we avoid cloverleaf zippers, that we give her a fighting chance to prove she's not a monster, that we keep our sense of proportion about things like reading groups and IQ results, and that we be a little more wary of educational medicine men.

Considering what Junior's teacher accomplishes while we're hacking the ground out from under her, it's interesting to contemplate what might happen if we were to stop hacking and start helping. There's no telling what might develop. Why, it might even turn out that Junior's a pretty darn bright youngster after all.

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Do Students Make the College?

T. R. McConnell and Paul Heist In College and University

WHAT gives a college or university its character? There are manifold determinants of institutional climate or atmosphere-financial resources, community relations, cultural context, educational demands, social sanctions, the faculty, the alumni, the administrative staff, the governing board, and many more. In addition, most of us would agree, I am sure, that the characteristics of the students who attend an institution profoundly affect its character.

The relationship between student characteristics and institutional character is not a simple one, of course. For example, an institution may be more a constellation of subcultures than a homogeneous whole. This is more likely to be true of a large, complex university than of a small college, but conceivably the latter, too, may contain functionally distinct cultural subdivisions.

Again, student characteristics may remain fairly constant over a period of time, giving an institution a continuing cast. Or, students', parents', or the public's image of a college may change, producing changes in the student body it attracts, and, in turn, effecting a gradual alteration in the institution's essential character. Such changes in student characteristics may occur without deliberate efT. R. McConnell is Chairman of the Center for the Study of Higher Education and Paul Heist is Associate Research Psychologist at the same Center, University of California, Berkeley. Reported from College and University, XXXIV (Summer 1959), 442-52.

fort on the institution's part; in fact, the institution may be un-

happy with the result.

One college president has been heard to complain that it is increasingly difficult for his college to secure desirable variety in its student body because, in the mind of students, parents, and counselors, only the "brain" will be admitted or succeed. (We need not say that this is an infrequent lament.) On the other hand, it is presumably possible, in some cases at least, for an institution deliberately to change its student body in certain directions. For example, in a short period of 16 years Amherst has been able to increase the percentage of its freshmen who were in the top quarter of their high-school classes from 45 to 79. This striking improvement in the academic ability of its entrants must have significantly changed the character of the college.

If academic aptitude is one of

student characteristics that shape educational institutions, the differences in the intellectual characteristics of American colleges and universities are so great as almost to defy description. The Center for the Study of Higher Education -as a part of its research into this situation-has attempted to map what might be called "the intellectual surface" of American higher education at the point of intake. This was done by obtaining the aptitude scores of the freshman classes of 1952 in a stratified random sample of the 1850 approximate institutions in the country. From this data it has been possible to estimate the selectivity of higher education as a whole, as well as its selectivity by region, by type of institution, and by form of control (public, private, Protestant, and Catholic). The data also reveals the variation in the mean aptitude test scores among the institutions.

Arthur E. Traxler estimated that the range in average IQ among 323 colleges in the norm group of 1937 for the American Council on Education Psychological Examination was from 94 to 123. This would correspond, roughly, to a range of two and one-half standard deviations in mean ACE total scores. based on the total distribution of individual freshman scores in all the institutions. Benno G. Fricke has surmised that the range in mean scores for all institutions in this country might be considerably greater. The Center's study indicates that there is actually a range

of about four standard deviations in mean scores in the national sample of institutions, when the base line is the total distribution of individual freshman scores in the 200 institutions.

In the single state of California, one finds a range of over three standard deviations (again based on the distribution of individual scores in the national sample) in the mean aptitude scores of entering freshmen among all institutions. In another state, the mean freshman score in the most selective institution was a standard deviation above that of the least selective institution. Both were liberal arts colleges. The mean ACE scores of freshmen in the Protestant and private liberal arts colleges of the North Central Region varied from 94 to 123. (This range represents about one standard deviation individual scores.) The variation in means in the Northeast for the same type of schools was from 111 to 131. In the South, excluding Negro colleges, it was from 68 to 123.

DEMANDS DIFFER

So great is the range of average ability of students among liberal arts colleges that although they may be similar in structure, professed purposes, and curricular organization, the intellectual resemblance is superficial indeed. In the intellectual demands these colleges can make on their student bodies they are most dissimilar. And the evidence gathered in our study in-

dicates that—at the undergraduate level at least—a great many students tend to find their own intellectual level. They seek an education among their intellectual peers in the diverse maze of colleges and universities. The processes of recruitment, selection, and persuasion by the institutions aid in this stratification.

Institutions also differ in degree of internal variability. The dispersion of academic aptitude is greater in some colleges and universities than in others, and relatively more homogeneous student bodies may be found among colleges at either extreme of selectivity. But even in the least heterogeneous institutions there are still wide differences in ability. To cite the extreme, we found certain freshmen attending colleges in which their measured aptitude was a full standand deviation above that of the next highest student in the distribution. What is the effect of this apparent misplacement or mispairing on the scholastic life and achievement. if not the total development, of such potentially able scholars?

Some writers on this subject have suggested that all institutions should select from a limited range of ability. Would such pairing stimulate better achievement at all levels of ability, and particularly at exceptional levels? If better pairing is desirable, how could it be achieved? What information about colleges and their student bodies would have to be supplied to the consumers, and are our means of

measuring aptitude and predicting achievement good enough to supply the necessary tools of assessment to counselors and the tools of selection to admission officers? In a society where the model to be emulated seems to be the institution with high-ability students and a program with high academic standards, will it be possible to persuade a good many institutions to content themselves with different kinds of students and different educational objectives? Will it be possible to persuade them to seek out such students?

Asking again the question: Do students make the college? there are numerous other ways in which they may be differentiated by the dominant characteristics of their students. One thinks of colleges with high proportions of young "liberals," and institutions whose students are generally conservative and conventional; of colleges with concentrations of religiously oriented or nonreligious youth; colleges which draw primarily from upper socio-economic and cultural strata. All these predominant student characteristics and backgrounds may be counted on to produce a distinctive atmosphere, to lend a decided cast to a collegiate community. And the same factors may create complex problems of counseling, teaching, and educational programming in an institution in which students are indifferent and resistive to a faculty's educational objectives, or in which student and faculty cultures seldom mesh.

Advantages and Shortcomings

Teaching Science by Television

MAURICE U. AMES

In The Clearing House

URING the spring of 1958 I was privileged to visit 10 American cities where television was being used in public education and I had an opportunity to observe studio teaching, classroom reception of telecasts, and reactions of pupils, teachers, supervisors, and parents to television instruction.

I was particularly interested in TV instruction in the field of science at all levels. Here I had the opportunity to observe a number of advantages:

Television makes it possible to spread the contributions of outstanding teachers of a school system to all students and to the public. Where there are shortages of personnel, such as is now true of science teachers, it is thus possible to alleviate the situation somewhat by the means of television. And since television studio teachers are carefully selected from among the best in a school system and are given a great deal of time in which to plan, prepare, and implement lessons, it is to be expected

that these will be of a high grade. In the schools I visited I saw lessons and demonstrations more carefully planned and prepared and more interestingly presented than in our usual classroom lessons.

Television makes possible the use of a wide and rich variety of visual aids, demonstration equipment, realia, and resource people which are beyond the reach of a single classroom teacher. Highschool physics courses by famous science teachers may be given economically to many classrooms simultaneously.

The television camera can give every viewer a front-row seat for a science demonstration or experiment regardless of where he is seated. The camera and the television receiver are thus used as magnifying devices. For example, a studio teacher whom I saw showed a model of the human eye with removable parts more effec-

Maurice U. Ames, now Assistant Superintendent of Schools, is a former supervisor of science and junior-high-school principal, all in New York City. Reported from The Clearing House, XXXIV (September 1959), 6-9. tively than it could be done in comparable time in an ordinary classroom situation.

Television reception of lessons and science demonstrations seems to promote close concentration, good attention, and selfdiscipline by students. And test results seem to indicate that students taught by television can achieve as well in the factual information and skills usually tested as do students in regular classes.

Kinescopes or tape recordings of telecasts make it possible to preserve or use again some special demonstrations involving fragile or expensive materials, some outstanding lessons, or some special contribution by a visiting scientist.

Television, it has been shown, can also be used successfully for summer-school make-up work, for remedial work, for home study, for advanced work, and for the benefit of the many others who cannot come to a school building. It is obviously useful in teaching pupils who are homebound or in hospitals.

When carefully planned and implemented, television instruction is welcomed by teachers as well as by supervisors, parents, and pupils. This new teaching medium should not, however, be regarded as a panacea. It has a number of inadequacies and difficulties. No supplementary aid, even one as effective as this audio-visual aid, can be a complete substitute for a good teacher. There is bound to be justified criticism of its effectiveness if and when television is used to do

the entire job of teaching a particular subject.

From my observations I found the following shortcomings. Some of these could probably be corrected in time with follow-up instruction, carefully planned and integrated with the telecast programs. We should also keep in mind that this is a comparatively new technique and that it will take time and sufficient practice to perfect this TV medium as a good teaching tool.

SHORTCOMINGS

1. There seems to be less stress on individualization of instruction. The studio teachers generally aim their telecasts at the normal or average pupil. The needs of the gifted pupils, as well as those of slow learners, tend to be submerged. This is true, so far, in the viewing as well as in the follow-up of a television lesson. There also seems to be a diminution of individual guidance in such an appeal to a mass group.

2. There seems to be less stress on socialization of instruction. Rather than the helpful cooperative approach of pupils and teachers in the selection and solution of problems, the lessons and activities in educational television are obviously centered around the studio teacher. Hence, valuable group discussion is lessened.

3. There is obvious reduced communication between the studio teacher and his pupils. The television teacher does not get the

immediate reactions of his viewing audience, and pupils cannot ask questions or make comments while the television lesson is in progress. This often hurts the timing of the lesson and reduces valuable pupil participation in the learning process.

4. In a few school systems I visited, classroom teachers were called on to do preparatory teaching and follow-up teaching with large groups of pupils, ranging from 80 to 300, who were scheduled to view a telecast. This kind of mass teaching is usually ineffectual and is generally harmful to the idea of television instruction. From my observations, the television teaching itself can be effective with large groups of pupils providing there are sufficient receivers and good physical conditions in the room. However, I am convinced that the preparatory and follow-up instruction should be done in the classroom with the usual small classroom group.

In my opinion, on the basis of a great deal of observation of, and current participation in, television instruction, with science instruction involving five periods a week there should be no more than two 30minute telecasts a week with a follow-up of three classroom sessions. It is also important that preparatory and follow-up work include laboratory experiences by pupils with direct rather than vicarious experiences. At the elementary level I would limit the science telecast to 20 minutes rather than have a 30-minute session. At the juniorhigh, senior-high, and levels, the 30-minute attention span can be maintained.

These new school-system TV projects now in operation around the country have many profitable possibilities for the enrichment of direct, in-school science teaching. These possibilities, I am sure, will be explored by science teachers who are always ready, willing, and able to experiment.

- The army today is using closed circuit television and other electronic aids to cut more than 25 percent from missile training time, according to Col. H. S. Newhall, commandant of the Army Ordnance Guided Missile School at
- To say that television can be badly used is to say no more than that sharp knives cut and that fire burns. We do not give up hammers because the careless user hits his pretend that it will save money for the taxpayers by enabling us to get along with fewer teachers. It will not —Edgar Dale, Ohio State University.

Teacher Use of Directive Language

BERNARD RABIN

In Educational Leadership

HE literature of education provides methodologies for producing thinking people. Diligent teachers try to get learners to assume increasing responsibility for their own learning and thinking as they move through the schools. Yet, in spite of pedagogical treatises and the efforts of teachers, complaints are heard at all levels of education that teachers are, in some way, missing in their efforts and are not achieving the results they would like to think they are.

One reason may be that, in verbal interactions with children and youth, teachers are stifling thinking behavior without realizing that they are doing so. It is the contention of the writer that language habits which stifle thinking behavior and discourage it can be noted in classrooms and homes.

Adults, the writer has noted, use directive language guised in the form of a question. A parent says, "Isn't it time to go to bed now?" Or "Shouldn't you wear your rubbers today?" Or "Don't you think it would be a good idea to pick up your tovs now?" This is misleading. No question is being asked of the child. Thinking behavior is not called for. A command or reminder is being issued, advice is being given. Now, there is no quarrel here with the merit involved in teach-

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ing children to assume responsibility for picking up toys, or going to bed, or wearing their rubbers. It is the language in which the command is couched that is the culprit.

At school the child finds the teacher using "isn't it," "shouldn't it," and "wouldn't it." "Don't you think" is also a common preface to remarks and questions used by teachers at all levels. When first graders are challenged with this type of phrase in discussion situations the results are predictable, as in the following example:

A discussion is being held in a first grade to determine what is to be done about procuring the weekly supply of juice which this school normally provides for a mid-morning break. The teacher leads this discussion.

Teacher: Now we must decide who will go downtown to buy the juice this week. Let's think about what we have to do and try to figure out the best solution to the problem. Now, what do you think?

Jimmy: John and I went down to get it last week and we know how to do it, so we ought to do it again. Susan: Yes, let them do it again. Teacher: Don't you think it is much nicer to take turns?

In verbal situations of this type the teacher has predetermined the solution to the problem confronting the learners. He does not provide practice in thinking for his learners. It is possible to predict the response normally obtained from children. Six-year-olds already have learned very well what "don't you think" means prior to coming to school and they watch carefully for whatever it is they are being told is best. Some may accept grudgingly, at first, what teacher feels is best, but steady employment of this type of language and the observation of what happens after its employment teaches its lesson. The consequence is compliance and acceptance of whatever idea may be in the teacher's mind, disguised, however flimsily, in the phrase, "don't you think."

Older learners exhibit similar responses to this type of admonition.

Fifth graders have read and are discussing an article in the weekly magazine. The article involved a decision made by some nations to limit the activity of ship weather stations.

Teacher: Why do you suppose the U. S. wanted to discontinue them? Don't you think it costs money?

Now these children had read this article. But no thinking was called for when "don't you think" was used. The teacher actually gave them a vital bit of information which they ought to have been encouraged to think through for them-

selves. Teachers make this same kind of mistake continually in leading discussions. Rarely do fifth graders react negatively and disagree with the teacher. A child now and then will undoubtedly do so, but, by and large, children by the fifth grade have settled down comfortably when dealing with teachers. They seem to be quite happy to have teachers do their thinking for them in the classroom, indeed, expect it.

Other types of language habits merit scrutiny. One cluster of phrases, utilized by many teachers, might be categorized as indirect commands. For example, "Wouldn't you like to do this?" Or "It will work better if you do it that way, won't it?"

The writer submits that the teacher using indirect commands merely solicits agreement. The teacher himself has done whatever thinking a situation calls for. Children have learned to listen for the cues and provide the responses the query calls for.

PLEASING THE TEACHER

Another series of language habits has been noted in classrooms. Children are asked to do something or to think about something. The requests are couched in language which suggests that children profit by pleasing the teacher—if taken literally. Primary-grade teachers seem particularly prone to have used this type of language for so long that it is habitual with them. "Will someone tell me?" Or "Will

someone show me?" Or "Will you please read this for me?" Primary-grade children are particularly easy to handle in this fashion since they are anxious to please the teacher and since the teacher as parent surrogate looms large on their horizons.

It may be said that this type of language aims at stimulating thinking and promoting learning, but learners discover that one exerts one's self primarily to please the teacher. If it is assumed that children should learn to do what needs doing in order to help themselves profit, to help themselves to learn to assume more and more responsibility for independent thinking action, the use of language with me as the focus hardly serves that purpose. Young children need to learn to do things for themselves, to learn for their own interests, not for the teacher's. It ought to be obvious that early stress on thinking and doing to please the teacher does not contribute to this.

One potentially dangerous language habit noted in the behavior of many teachers can be seen when pupil opinion and thinking is solicited. During a discussion the teacher wishes to probe pupil opinion and feeling. He asks, "What do you think about this?" Or "How do you feel about this?" The usual procedure followed by the learners is

that of trying to recall the cues provided by the teacher earlier in the discussion situation. What seems called for, as dictated by earlier comments of the teacher, is provided. Thinking cannot normally be said to be stimulated.

At this point the reader is undoubtedly thinking that given certain circumstances this type of question will serve to stimulate thought. This is correct. This type of language behavior can be most useful, given a classroom setting and an atmosphere where the usual procedure has been to probe pupil feelings and thoughts, and where the teacher has calmly accepted and seriously considered ideas contrary to his own. Research has shown, however, that this is rarely the case when teachers ask for pupil thinking and feelings.

Observation and testimony of hundreds of teachers suggest that teachers are not generally aware of the significance of language habits such as these. But it is the writer's experience that once selected teachers are made aware of their habits and the potential effects of these on learners they find it relatively easy to learn to avoid this type of directive language. Teachers can learn to avoid directive language provided they understand and accept the philosophy involved in stimulating independent thinking.

CHILD, asked how he happened to think of something, said, "I got a kick in the mind and it said itself."—Lincoln Steffens.

Learning Experiences in Human Relations

A Vital Part of the School's Effort

In California Journal of Elementary Education

LHE child brings to school attitudes toward what is good and acceptable or is not good nor acceptable. These attitudes are based on the social standards of his family. For example, many children are likely to assume that all families consist of a father, mother, and one or more children. They may not be able to imagine a family where the mother is employed and is not at home to prepare dinner, or one in which the father does not provide the money to meet the family needs. These children might think that a story about saving money to buy a pair of shoes is a fairy tale.

Children of today must learn to accept and deal with a vast array of differences if they are to fill their roles effectively in a democratic society. It becomes necessary for today's schools to equip children to live in a heterogeneous society. It is the task of the school to provide learning situations in which children can develop respect for and understanding of peoples of varying backgrounds, customs, and cultures.

During the years of his elementary-school experience, the child needs to acquire certain of the social skills used in constructive relations with others, such as: to meet people who are different; to understand the point of view of adults; to get along together in groups; to settle playground differences; to understand the customs and attitudes of other people; to express his own problems so others can help him; and to understand life situations somewhat different from his own experiences.

Learning to meet people who are different.-Readiness to accept people who are different can begin in the child's early school experience. One teacher found the opportunity when the first Negro child was enrolled in her class. The teacher first made a special effort to make each child feel that he was a valuable and wanted member of the class. The children were encouraged to talk about their family life and customs-how their family was like and unlike other families. The mother of one child was born in Norway; the grandfather of another was born in Italy; one of

Reported from California Journal of Elementary Education, XXVII (May 1959), 211-30. the fathers was born in Poland. All were invited to speak to the children and share their cultural traditions.

Various ways were planned to make newcomers welcome in the school. Members of the class accepted the responsibility for introducing newcomers to teachers on the playground, for helping them to participate in playground activities, for acquainting them with the cafeteria and other school facilities.

Learning to understand the point of view of adults.—Children need to learn to live with and understand the roles of adults in their lives. Children would like to get along with adults but they are frequently at odds with them because they have not learned the skills needed to understand or accept the adults' point of view. One task of the teacher is that of developing social understanding, attitudes, and skills so that the child can feel at ease with adults in the school and community.

A teacher who will listen to the problems of the child with patience and sympathetic understanding and then help him find a solution is developing the needed avenues of communication which help the child to understand adults. Setting up problem situations in which the children have an opportunity to play the roles of adults help the children improve their understanding. Sometimes a group of parents is willing to participate in a discussion with children concerning why they hold certain beliefs on

issues where there is a great difference of opinion between children and adults. The values children accept and live by can best be learned in real situations.

GETTING ALONG IN GROUPS

Learning to get along together in groups.-One teacher was confronted on the first day of school with the problem of helping the children in the class learn to get along together in groups. There were 30 children in this class and the occupations of the fathers included day laborer, seaman, taxi driver, welder, carpenter, mechanic, telephone repairman, a caterpillar tractor driver, clerk, bartender, railroad yard clerk, recreation worker, officer manager, owner of a furniture store, optometrist, psychiatrist, food and drug administration inspector, lawyer, retired Army colonel, and owner of a large cattle ranch.

During introductions, Peter, a newcomer, whose father owned the furniture store, was happily telling about his family's new sail boat and how he was learning to help his father sail and take care of the boat. There was no doubt, as the teacher glanced around at the children's faces, that the class was not "with" Peter in his recital. Some of the children looked incredulous, as if they thought Peter was making up all this story. A few boys looked downright disgusted. Because the first sociogram made of this group showed some clique formation and isolation which seemed to be based on different backgrounds of social learning, the teacher made plans for learning experiences which would help these children to get along together in groups and to give and win acceptance.

Problem stories suitable for role playing arose out of the daily living together. The children first wrote about and discussed problems with which they were confronted—"How It Feels to Be Different," "When I Was the Worst Player," are examples. Sometimes the children would play out a situation to discover alternate outcomes without putting anything down on paper. They learned from their experiences what is meant by "group decision."

This teacher was one who recognized her responsibility and opportunity.

She found ways, for example, to help children achieve understanding of what is really meant by being "a good sport"—that it does not mean one has to give up individuality and his right to independent judgment, criticism, and questioning.

PLAYGROUND DIFFERENCES

Learning to settle playground differences.—Role playing, again, is one of the most effective ways for children to learn to settle playground differences. The children who have had the disagreement enact the problem situation for the class exactly as the situation occurred. The problem is then turned over to the class for role playing.

A group volunteers to play the roles and show how the situation might have been handled differently. Discussion follows as to why the method presented might or might not succeed. This is done several times, with different children presenting suggested ways of handling the situation. At the end, the belligerents are asked if any solution appealed to them. They may or may not decide to accept one of the enactments. Whether they accept the solution or not, they cannot help but gain from the impartiality and the obvious desire on the part of their classmates to help. The whole class shares in a creative thinking experience to meet problem situations arising on the playground.

Learning to understand the customs and attitudes of other people. -Regular textbooks can, of course, be used to help children understand the customs and attitudes of other peoples. It is necessary to focus attention on human behavior and distinguish between social and unsocial behavior and attitudes. In a study of Mexico, the children in one class who read The Adventures of Nicolas by James Clarke discussed various questions in human relations. The children saw that our friends south of the border did things differently because of their environment. They learned that these people were very much like us, more like us than they were different.

Learning to present his own problems so others can help him.—

One elementary teacher, interested in ways in which a child could learn to present his own problems in such a way as to enable others to help him, simply made appointments with each child for a personal conference just as she would have done for a parent-teacher conference. She found that children were most willing to talk freely when she asked, "Is there any problem or anything at all I can help you with?" Often the children could not express verbally some deep-seated problem situation, and at first the problems mentioned were superficial. However, the fact that the child built up confidence in unburdening himself of something which was bothering him helped him to relax and freed him to discuss his more significant problems.

Some teachers use informal discussions and the more formal panel discussions with each child having an opportunity to serve as chairman of a small group. Ideas are expressed on responsibility, leadership, fears, hobbies, money and its value, pleasant relations at home, and feelings about other people. Through such discussions children gain insight into the actions and values of their groups, their friends, their parents, and themselves. They discover that "talking things over" is a good way to plan, make decisions, and establish acceptable values to govern their own lives.

Learning to understand life situations.—But many problems in human relations may not be encountered in the day-by-day living of a group of children. Some acquaintance with these problems can be provided through well selected children's literature. Using literature to develop worthwhile human relations is based on the premise that teachers can try to help a child identify with worthwhile characters or to accept as his own the worthwhile behaviors emphasized in a book. This identification will not necessarily be on a verbal or understanding level, but may be at a motivational level. In other words, the child may be motivated to react to a situation with conduct comparable to that of an admired story character, without being aware of what prompted such conduct.

Innumerable opportunities arise every day in the classroom to improve human relations, attitudes, and behavior. Increased emphasis on human relations is achieved through the informational content of the school program, through the methods the teacher employs in working with children, and the climate provided in the classroom. Much progress is being made in this field, though much remains to be done. It is encouraging, however, to note that the schools are giving increasing attention to understanding the experience background of children and the social values accepted by his family and neighborhood. Without this understanding much of the school's effort in the teaching-learning process may prove futile.

Adding New Dimensions to Evaluation

Student Leadership in Evaluating Compositions

LOREN V. GRISSOM

In The English Journal

COMPOSITION evaluation poses many problems for those teaching English to the increasing number of students. In the first place, the teacher usually lacks both the time and energy to describe fully his reactions to the purpose, content, and construction of student papers. Too frequently the teacher must restrict his attention to the mechanical considerations of spelling, punctuation, and handwriting. What attention the more subtle aspects of worthiness, appropriateness of content, and effectiveness of presentation receive is usually in the form of cryptic notes such as "poor organization" or "effective style." These remarks leave the student bewildered as to how to improve from this point.

Greater student participation is one alternative to this teachercentered method of evaluation. It is true that to many students evaluation is a mystery-shrouded activity engaged in only by teachers. But increased understanding of the evaluation process can result from student involvement. And, after attaining an acquaintance with evaluation procedures, students can criticize and correct their own papers before turning them in to the teacher. This independence is one of the highest goals of composition instruction.

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********* This approach should probably begin with students working out their own set of standards. The first set of student-formulated criterious may be fairly elementary, but the points which students include are meaningful to them and represent their present level of writing maturity. Then, on the day compositions are due, before the teacher has marked them, students can work in a composition-laboratory situation. Groups of four or five students can exchange papers and write comments on quarter sheets supplied by the teacher. The distribution of these notes at the end of the session provides each student with not one but three or four evaluations.

As in the case of the list of student standards, these comments will not be so thorough and precise as those that might be written by a teacher who has ample marking time. But few teachers have the time to do a really thorough job of commenting. More important, these comments have come from the students

dents, and they thus represent the level at which the individual student is presently able to critically analyze compositions. Both the students and the teacher can observe gradual improvement in this activity if each student clips these notes to his papers so that they become a part of his cumulative composition file.

If any time remains at the end of the session, students enjoy having each group present a paper orally to the whole class. This procedure not only provides the enjoyment of listening to classmates' papers but also affords opportunity for individual oral expression. It should be noted, however, that this oral presentation alone is not sufficient. Oral presentation does not permit careful analysis of such factors as unity, continuity, variety, and many other subtle elements of composition. A really good reader can make even a poor paper appear much stronger than it would under the careful scrutiny of a silent reader.

Thus, to the rather passive activity of receiving teacher comments, the procedure suggested here adds several new dimensions to evaluation. If the teacher constantly varies the membership of the groups, each student has the opportunity to experience the approach and style employed by 25 or 30 other students. While he shares with his teacher the difficulty of describing his reactions to these approaches

and styles, he nevertheless experiences them.

In reacting critically to classmates' papers, these students employ their own set of standards which they formulated earlier. Each student both gives and receives comments. In giving—and, if necessary, explaining—their comments, the more capable students can demonstrate group leadership.

In contrast with the rote memorization of textbook materials, which tends to fade away shortly after the examination, this process contributes to a meaningful and lasting understanding of principles. If at this point students spend class time in discussing the strengths and weaknesses of recent papers and in revising their list of standards, their criticisms will tend to go beyond the purely mechanical aspects to the validity and significance of ideas and effectiveness of style.

The laboratory sessions also can provide the basis for class discussions of principles which students still have not mastered. The teacher can ask students to collect illustrations of whatever principle is under consideration from their own and their classmates' papers. Or better yet, the topics can originate from the students' own perceptions of their own needs. In any event, the stock examples of the exercise or drill book become obsolete in the face of sentences written only yesterday by members of the class.

Can a Variable Admission Program Work?

Off to School-at What Age?

THOMAS C. ROWLAND and CALVIN C. NELSON

In The Elementary School Journal

E know that babies are not ready for solid foods simply because they have reached a certain calendar age. And we know that children do not start to walk or to talk simply because they have reached a certain calendar age. Yet when we consider a child's readiness for school, we insist that this big step be timed strictly by birth-days.

Actually, some children may be ready for school at five years of age. Others are not ready at six—or at seven. Inflexible age requirements for school admission may work to the disadvantage of all these boys and girls—barring some because they are too young, insisting that others be in the classroom simply because, according to the calendar, they are old enough.

Most educators today readily admit that children are not all ready for formal schooling at the same age. But when schoolmen try to translate this fact into school policy, their efforts are overshadowed by a number of practical problems.

First is the problem of selection. Which children will be able to participate successfully in first grade? The question requires that the educator make predictions on the school performance of boys and girls. The educator uses instruments for his predictions. The

Thomas C. Rowland is Director of Special Education and Calvin C. Nelson is School Psychologist in the public schools of Yakima, Washington. Reported from The Elementary School Journal, LX (October 1959), 18-23.

schoolman must have confidence in these instruments; he must feel reasonably sure that the children selected by the instruments will not be placed in a situation where they may fail. This is only part of his problem. An adequate selection program can be costly. He will have to find funds for the program in a budget that may already be seriously strained.

The educator faces other problems. He must be prepared to deal with community values. It is no easy task to counteract the centuryold notion that a six-year-old should be in school simply because he is six years old. The parents' status in the community is often involved. The acceptance or rejection of a child by the school can have serious effect on the mother and the father. It is not easy to convince parents-whatever their social standing in the communitythat they will be inviting failure if their child starts to school at six years of age. It is far from easy, for

example, to explain to a mother why her six-year-old is not ready for school while her neighbor's fiveyear-old is.

Such are the practical problems that have helped to perpetuate the policy of a fixed chronological age for school entrance.

NEW SURVEY

The Research Division of the NEA recently circulated a questionnaire on official policies regarding admission age for beginning school and reported its findings in the Educational Research Service Circular last April. We were especially interested in the 57 districts that reported that they followed a policy of variable admission age and sent questionnaires to each of these. Forty-six were returned. It was learned that four of those listed in the NEA study no longer made exceptions. Six of the others admitted younger children only to kindergarten. Thus the results commented on here are based, for the most part, on responses from the remaining 36 school districts.

Districts were asked to tell why they had adopted a flexible admissions policy. Of the 33 that answered this question, 8 percent reported that they had adopted the policy to recognize individual differences. Fifty-six percent reported that they wanted to accelerate the more mature pupils; 12 percent indicated that school-board pressure was behind their decision; inconsistent policies of private kindergartens was the reason cited by 12

percent. Since districts were given the opportunity to indicate more than one answer to most of the queries in the questionnaire, the percentages do not always add up to 100.

One purpose of the questionnaire was to gather information on selection procedures. Thirty-two districts responded to this inquiry. Seventy-eight percent listed tests as a means of choosing likely candidates; 90 percent used individual psychological examinations; 40 percent reported that individual developmental histories were used; 50 percent listed teacher observations; 31 percent required physical examinations; 43 percent used kindergarten success to make their predictions; and 59 percent used parent interviews.

MOST USEFUL METHODS

Which methods were most useful? Sixty-six percent of the districts indicated that the individual psychological examination was the most valuable. Tied for second place were group tests and developmental histories, reported by 26 percent. Other procedures and considerations, in order of preference, were success in kindergarten, teacher observations, parent interviews, and physical examinations.

The schoolmen were asked whether evaluation services were available for all children, including children who, it was thought, might not be ready for school. Of the 39 responses, 74 percent indicated that the service was available to

both groups of children. Evaluations started in these districts as early as April and continued through September, but most of them were made during July and August.

In a flexible admissions program, someone must have the responsibility of deciding which children are ready for admissions. Practices differed greatly, it was learned. In 54 percent of the districts, the responsibility was assigned to the school psychologist. Nine other school officials were also named, including the superintendent, the principal, the assistant principal, the supervisory principal, the director of pupil personnel, and the elementary supervisor. In some districts, a special committee on admissions or the school board made the selections.

What was the policy on exceptions to decisions made by the person or the group responsible for selecting and rejecting children for early admission? Of the 32 districts reporting, only 40 percent considered exceptions.

What was the response of school personnel to the program? Of the 35 districts that answered this question, 88 percent reported satisfaction. But what of the patrons—the mothers and fathers? Were they pleased with the policy? Of the 33 districts that answered this question, 30 indicated that the patrons were pleased. Two districts could not be sure: some parents were pleased, others were not.

The reason most commonly re-

ported for dissatisfaction with the program was the difficulty in dealing with parents when their children were rejected for early admission. One district planned to discontinue its program because of difficulty in handling these parents' objections and dissatisfaction. Another district favored a return to an automatic six-vear admission age with provisions for acceleration in first grade. Most suggestions for improving the program centered on more adequate evaluation procedures. The comments, however, were not directed toward better measuring instruments, but toward more individual testing.

GENERALLY SATISFIED

The school districts were generally satisfied with their variable admissions programs. These programs will, no doubt, win wider acceptance as schoolmen gain knowledge and skill in measurement. As more sensitive psychological and observational techniques are available for predicting success in first grade more simply and more accurately, educators may feel more willing to admit younger children.

School districts where the programs are adequate and the patrons are generally pleased provide evidence that a flexible admission program can be successful. Such districts are paving the way for an educational program based on the needs of today's children, not on the preconceptions of adults preoccupied with their own needs and the schools of their childhood.

→ With Education in Washington ★

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

TV Disclosures and Education.— Evidence of rigging and deception practiced in some commercial TV programs has brought both gloom and a small ray of cheer to Washington educators.

The gloom was east primarily by the evidence given the House Special Subcommittee on Legislative Oversight by the embattled Charles Van Doren. His official testimony reflects the degree to which he and TV producers involved education and the teaching profession in perpetrating their hoax. Here are excerpts from the Van Doren testimony, as heard by the House subcommittee:

"He (TV Producer Albert Freedman) stressed the fact that by appearing on a nationally televised program I would be doing a great service to the intellectual life, to teachers, and to education in general, by increasing public respect for the work of the mind through my performances . . .

"... I was almost able to convince myself that it did not matter what I was doing because it was having such a good effect on the national attitude toward teachers, education, and the intellectual life

"... I realized I was really giving a wrong impression of education. True education does not mean knowledge of facts exclusively. I wrote articles trying to express this feeling, but few people were interested . . ."

While there is little comfort for Washington educators in this testimony, some feel that the fortunes of educational TV may be strengthened as a result of commercial television's debacle. They point to two arguments:

First, Congress and the executive department now have evidence that in its race for mass audiences and high ratings of acceptance, commercial TV has ignored the needs of the intelligent adult and the inquiring child and has harmed the national morality generally.

Second, Madison Avenue has misused and debased knowledge and education by involving them in games and hoaxes.

Educators argue that this means commercial TV cannot serve the needs of education. The alternative is stronger support for noncommercial TV programs, sponsored by schools and under schoolmen's direction.

Federal Aid vs. Federal Support.

There is a difference between federal aid and federal support to education. It is a difference which the National Education Association plans to underscore and dramatize during the months ahead as it launches a new battle in Congress, not for federal aid but for federal support to the public schools.

What are the distinguishing characteristics between the two?

 Federal aid is intended to stimulate some educational activity rather than to underwrite it for a long period of time. Thus, grants to the states for vocational education are considered federal aid rather than federal support.

 Federal aid is usually directed to some special area rather than to over-all educational goals. Payments to finance veterans edu-

cation provide an example.

3. Federal aid tends to be remedial rather than fundamental. The school lunch program is designed to reduce farm surpluses rather than to attack fundamental problems in education.

4. Federal aid tends to deal with emergency situations rather than long-range problems. The payments to school districts suffering from swelling enrolments caused by federal activity illustrates this point.

Any high-school debater on the issue is aware that federal aid has been in existence for many decades. At the present time federal-aid checks from the U.S. Treasury total close to \$1 billion a year.

But this fact does not satisfy the contention of those who say that what is needed is federal support. Says James L. McCaskill, chief lobbyist for the NEA: "Whereas federal aid involves short-term remedies, federal support involves the recognition of federal responsibility for the educational well-being of the nation."

In the mind of Dr. McCaskill and others holding this view:

 Federal support calls for a partnership of the U. S. government and local and state authorities to underwrite the financing of all education.

Federal support helps general school operations rather than specific subjects or functions.

3. Federal support gets at the fundamental problem of making available to the public schools sources of revenue which belong to all the people in the entire nation.

4. Federal support involves a long-range commitment on the part of the U. S. Government rather than one with time limits.

According to the ways federal aid and federal support are being defined, the National Defense Education Act—with its concern for specific subjects and its four-year limitation—falls under the definition for federal aid, rather than federal support.

The NEA does not claim to have invented the definitions. Instead it credits Beardsley Ruml, John K. Galbraith, and Walter Heller, economists and finance experts, with

originating the concepts.

Says one NEA official: "In the past, federal aid has consisted of nothing more than hot patches and baling wire for repairing the weak spots in our educational system. Now what is needed is massive infusion of funds so that schools can meet the universal demand for high quality education."

The Dropout Problem.—The U. S. Labor Department has been studying the job fortunes of 10,000 boys and girls who dropped out of high school before graduating; and of 12,000 who graduated from high school but who did not go on to college.

Government labor analysts, aided by local school people, studied these school leavers in seven different parts of the country.

Looking first at the 10,000 dropouts, the Labor Department found that more than a fourth of them quit school "because of adverse school experiences." This was as true of girls as of boys. Other reasons for leaving school were military service and the necessity to go to work, for boys; marriage, for girls.

Says the Labor Department: "Dissatisfaction with school—adverse school experience—was the single most important rationalization for leaving school. In interviews with these boys and girls, comparatively few expressed any opinion on how school could have been more useful. Among those who did, however, about a third of the boys and about half the girls asked for more vocational counseling. 'A better curriculum' and 'better teachers' were among the more preponderant suggestions."

Here the Labor Department makes an important point: "A significant and substantial portion of boys and girls leave school well before any kind of counseling or occupational information reaches them." Only about two out of every five dropouts had had any taste of vocational guidance at all.

Actually, neither the high-school graduates nor the dropouts had trouble finding a job. The main discovery was how the jobs of the graduates and the dropouts differed. Girls who graduated got jobs in white-collar clerical fields; girls who dropped out became sales people, waitresses, and laundry workers. No such clear job pattern developed for boys. Both graduate and dropout boys went into unskilled jobs (factory workers, filling station operators), sales, and clerical work.

What about pay? asks the Labor Department. "Generally speaking, the graduate did much better in his earnings than did the dropout. Among the boys, we found that the proportion earning less than \$40 a week was 16 percent among the dropouts, 4 percent among the graduates. Thus, four times as many dropouts as graduates were found to be at the lower end of the wage scale. On the other hand, the proportion earning \$80 a week or more was 20 percent among the dropouts, 31 percent among the graduates."

What loss does the nation sustain because of dropouts or the failure of high-school graduates to go on to college? It is doubtful whether the dropouts—and students who terminated their education with high school—represent a strategic loss of potentially college-trained personnel. They do represent a

loss, however, of potentially trained skilled manpower. The evidence from these surveys at least warrants the suggestion that a good share of the dropouts might have made the grade as skilled, highlytrained, blue-collar workers-if they had stayed in high school until graduation and had thus become eligible for training programs in special fields. More and more skilled labor, becoming increasingly complex, is requiring minimum levels of educational attainment. For instance, the Labor Department currently lists 60 skills which are in short supply, and each of them requires at least a high-school education as a basis for special training.

Fight Against Diploma Mills.— Last month the American Council on Education fired a salvo against college degree mills. (See page 5, this issue.) This month, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare followed with additional devastating volleys. "This blight on the American educational scene," as Secretary Arthur Flemming called it, has been marked for destruction.

Dr. Flemming said that fraudulent degree-giving enterprises will be combatted in these ways:

1. The U. S. Commissioner of Education will compile a list of all educational institutions whose activities he believes to be questionable. The list will not be published, but will be available to qualified persons.

2. Future editions of directories which list accredited institutions (Educational Directory, Part 3. Higher Education and Accredited Higher Institutions, both published by the Office of Education) will carry a printed warning against degree-mill operators.

3. Since degree mills grant socalled religious degrees, the Commissioner of Education will seek the help of religious leaders in combatting this phase of the activity.

But why does not the federal government take bolder action by naming the fraudulent degree mills and thus drive them out of existence? Observers asking this question are told that it is not the business of the U. S. Office of Education to accredit or discredit schools and colleges. This is the job of the states or the accrediting agencies.

Nevertheless, Secretary Flemming did take the unprecedented step of listing a few "enterprises which do a disservice to American education." His list included the College of Divine Metaphysics, Indianapolis, Ind.; Neotarian College of Philosophy of the Neotarian Fellowship, Kansas City, Mo.; Midwestern University, Inc., St. Louis, Mo.; and Metropolitan University, Glendale, Calif.

Narrowing Gap.—Salaries of city school teachers and their rural colleagues are getting closer, the NEA Research Division announces. Last year rural teachers received only 25 percent less, compared to 29 percent in 1950.

Educational News

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENCIES:

Norfolk, Va.: J. J. Brewbaker has announced his retirement, ef-

fective in June 1960.

Atlantic City. N. J.: Samuel A. Gillingham, principal of Atlantic City High School, has been named successor to Alfred Saseen, superintendent since 1954, who will retire on December 31.

Racine, Wis.: John Prasch, former principal of Bellflower District High School, Calif., is successor to Ernest G. Lake, now superintendent of Union High School and Junior College District, Fullerton, Calif.

Euclid, Ohio: Lester E. Angene, acting superintendent since May, has been named superintendent, succeeding the late W. G. Fordyce.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

Portland State College, Ore .: Branford P. Millar, formerly of Michigan State University, East Lansing, has been inaugurated as president.

Radcliffe College, Cambridge, Mass.: Wilbur K. Jordan has re-

tired as president.

Taylor University, Upland, Ind .: B. Joseph Martin, president at Wesleyan College, Macon, Ga., has been named successor to Evan H. Bergwall, who resigned to return to the ministry.

Hartwick College, Oneonta, N.Y.: Frederick M. Binder, formerly vicepresident of Thiel College, Greenville, Pa., has been appointed presi-

dent.

Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware: David A. Lockmiller, formerly president of the University of Chattanooga, Tenn., has been inaugurated as president.

Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa.: Gilbert Malcolm, formerly vicepresident, is now president.

Amherst College, Mass.: Charles 1959

W. Cole, has announced his resignation, effective next year, in order to devote time to teaching, research, and writing,

University of Dallas, Tex.: F. Kenneth Brasted has resigned as

president.

Claremont College, Calif .: Robert J. Bernard has been appointed president.

Albion College, Mich .: William W. Whitehouse, president since 1945, has announced his retirement next year.

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS:

University of California, Los Angeles: Erick L. Lindman, formerly chairman of the department of education at George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn., is now professor of education.

University of Maine, Orono: Carl H. Porter-Shirley, who retired as superintendent of schools at Newport, R.I., is now professor of edu-

cation.

Missouri Valley College, Marshall: Raymond R. Brock, superintendent at Liberty, Mo., for 22 years, has accepted an appointment in the education department.

University of South Florida, Tampa: Jean A. Battle has been named dean of the college of edu-

cation.

University of Michigan, Ann Arbor: William K. Medlin of the U. S. Office of Education, has been appointed associate professor of education, effective in January.

New York University, New York: Walter A. Anderson has named acting dean of the school of education, succeeding George D. Stoddard, now executive vice-president of the University.

OTHER CHANGES AND

APPOINTMENTS:

James W. Reynolds, professor of

higher education, University of Texas, has been elected president of the Association for Higher Edu-

cation, NEA.

T. M. Stinnett, executive secretary of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA, has also been appointed NEA executive secretary for professional development welfare, and succeeding Hilda Maehling, retired.

Joseph L. Fisher has been elected president and executive director of Resources for the Future, Inc., succeeding Reuben G. Gustavson, re-

tired.

William S. Dix, librarian of Princeton University, has been named new chairman of the U.S. National Commission for Unesco.

RECENT DEATHS:

Charles S. Swope, president of State Teachers College, West Chester, Pa., at the age of 60.

Flying TV Station

An airborne instruction television experiment to help "lift quality and efficiency of education" in a sixstate region involving five million students and 13,000 schools and colleges has been announced by the new Midwest Council on Airborne Television Instruction, Lafayette, Ind.

Starting in the fall of 1960, classroom courses on video-tape, taught by outstanding teachers recruited from all across America, will be televised from a DC-7 aircraft some 20,000 feet over north central Indiana. Estimated coverage from the "flying TV station" will be a circle 300-400 miles in diameter, embracing parts of Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Michigan, Ohio, and Wiscon-

sin. Programs will be transmitted from ground-based facilities at Purdue University in Lafavette.

The experiment, which may be the forerunner of similar projects in other regions, is an attempt to cope with the national problem of how to provide increasing quality of education on an economically feasible basis for the rapidly expanding school population. Individual schools and colleges will participate on a voluntary basis.

Members of the new Midwest Council are: Samuel M. Brownell, chairman, superintendent, Detroit, Mich.; Novice G. Fawcett, Ohio University; Iohn Fowlkes, University of Wisconsin; Lyman V. Ginger, University of Kentucky; E. E. Holt, Ohio state superintendent of public instruction; Frederick L. Hovde, Purdue University; John W. Taylor, Chicago Educational Television Association; Herman B. Wells, Indiana University; and Benjamin Willis, superintendent, Chicago, Ill. John E. Ivey, Jr., formerly executive vice-president New York University, is president and chief executive of ficer of the Council.

Estimated total cost for the tooling-up year and the first year of broadcasting is nearly \$7 million. Financing will come from a \$4, 500,000 appropriation by the Ford Foundation and from other contributions from private industry.

Joint Testing Study

A JOINT study of testing programs offered to elementary and second

ary schools by state, regional, and national testing organizations has been announced by three national groups of school administrators—National Association of Secondary School Principals, American Association of School Administrators, and the Council of Chief State School Officers.

The study will be concerned with the extent to which testing programs may influence the curriculums of the schools. It will also examine the effects of using school time for testing programs not directly connected with teaching in the school.

Charles C. Holt, assistant superintendent, Proviso Township High Schools, Maywood, Ill., has been named director of the project, which is expected to require about a year.

A Teachers' Hospital

A \$1½ million hospital, financed and erected by teachers of Puerto Rico to assure medical care for every teacher, was opened in September in San Juan.

The hospital contains 120 beds and three operating rooms. It maintains a helicopter under contract to bring sick persons or accident victims to the hospital from remote areas of the commonwealth.

UAW on Education

THE United Auto Workers of America, at its convention in Atlantic City in October, passed a long resolution on education which recommended: the adoption of the

Murray-Metcalf Aid to Education Bill, the reduction of average class size to 25 or less, the appropriation of funds to study the drop-out problem, the reduction—and eventual elimination—of all tuition fees at state-supported institutions of higher learning, a national minimum salary for teachers of \$6,000, the establishment of federal scholarships, and the abolition of segregation in schools.

Teaching Machines

TEACHING machines are expected to be ready for schools on a limited basis in two years, B. F. Skinner of Harvard University announced at a recent conference of the American Psychological Association in Cincinnati.

The machines will be in mass production by next year, he said. The only hitch at present, he stated, is the lack of teaching programs designed with the machines in mind.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

Dec. 7-11, American Vocational Association, Chicago, Ill.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

Feb. 11-13, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 13-17, American Association of School Administrators, Atlantic City, N. J.

Feb. 27-Mar. 2, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Portland, Ore.

Feb. 29-Mar. 3, NEA Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, Cin-

Mar. 6-10, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Washington, D. C.

Issues in University Education.

Edited by Charles Frankel. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1959. Pp. xiv + 175. \$3.95.

Ten American scholars in this book describe where American higher education now stands, raise questions about where it ought to go, and discuss critical and persistent problems facing our colleges and universities today.

The wide range of topics include: the backgrounds of modern universities, changing philosophies, the role of science, the problem of democratizing opportunities, the making of the scholar, his responsibilities and freedoms, and the relation of the university to the community and to the students.

The authors of the essays in the book are Richard McKeon, Robert Ulich, J. Robert Oppenheimer, John Hope Franklin, Robert B. Brode, Irwin T. Sanders, Robert M. Strozier, Sigmund Neuman, and Charles Frankel, who writes the conclusion on critical issues.

The Preadolescent; Three Major Concerns. Mary Jane Loomis. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959. Pp. xvii + 310. \$4.00.

This book is concerned with the personal-social development of pre-adolescents. Through carefully selected anecdotes and reflections on them, the author, who is a member of the faculty at Ohio State University, presents a real-life view of preadolescents.

The book discusses three specific problems of the group: the aspirations to greater independence, the striving for sexual identification, and the provision for richer adolescent living through more effective preadolescent living.

A list of "related experiences" is included at the end of each chapter.

Learning to Work in Groups:
A Program Guide for Educational Leaders. Matthew B. Miles. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959. Pp. xiv + 285. \$5.00.

This book is an attempt to bring together what is now known about the practical problems of helping people learn better group behavior, and to apply this knowledge to the special case of American public education.

Described in detail are specific programs and activities for improving the effectiveness of school groups, from classroom to board of education. More than 100 tested training activities are included. The book focuses on immediate problems that people face in trying to work with others.

Dr. Miles is associate professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia, and research associate in the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation.

Spurs to Creative Teaching. Laura Zirbes. New York: G. P.

Putnam's Sons, 1959. Pp. xx + 354. \$5.75.

Although this is Dr. Zirbes' first book, she is well known to educators for her interest in teaching as a creative art through her hundreds of articles in educational publications since 1915.

She presents this book as more than just a book about creative teaching—it is creative teaching. She discusses the implications of creative teaching, what it means.

DECEMBER

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what creative values have to do with curriculum improvement, creative approaches in the teaching of arithmetic, reading, science, language arts, music, art, and ends with the challenge of creative teaching to in-service education and supervision.

Knowledge Is Not Enough.

Samuel B. Gould, Yellow Springs, Ohio: The Antioch Press, 1959. Pp. 232. \$3.50.

This volume presents 15 of Dr. Gould's best-received addresses made while he was president of Antioch College. Taken together, they form a wide-ranging, unified, clear-cut philosophy of education that is realistic in its foundations and heartening in its implications.

The subjects include: "New Frontiers for Higher Education," "Breaking the Thought Barrier," "Maintaining a Balance in Higher Education," "Quality in Education," "Science Comes of Age," and "Education for a Global View."

The School in American Society. Ralph L. Pounds and James R. Bryner. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1959. Pp. xxi + 518. \$6.75.

As the authors point out in their forword, this book is primarily concerned with the important trends in the American culture and their implications for the school.

After a discussion of the relation of school to society, the authors devote eight chapters to the problems facing the individual in modern American society, including problems of family life, problems of mental health, problems of crime and delinquency, problems occasioned by population trends, problems of intergroup relations, and problems related to public opinion

and international relations. The final section of the book is devoted to the role of the school in modern America.

Ralph Pounds is professor of education at the University of Cincinnati. James Bryner is superintendent of schools at North College Hill, Ohio.

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED:

ELEMENTARY

Venezuela—A Resource Unit for Upper Elementary Grades. G. Derwood Baker and Franklin K. Patterson. New York: Creole Petroleum Corporation, Education Section, 1959. Pp. 14. Free.

An Alphabet of Animals. A 48page booklet, illustrated in color, available free from the South African Tourist Corporation, 610 Fifth Ave., New York 20, N.Y.

Children Learn the Language Arts. Mildred Dawson and Frieds Hayes Dingee. Minneapolis, Minn. Burgess Publishing Co., 1959. Pp. 154. \$3.15.

Teaching Music in the Elementary School. Anne E. Pierce. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1959. Pp. xiii + 239. \$4.75.

A Treasury of Books for the Primary Grades. Mildred A. Dawson and Louise Pfeiffer. A Guide to Teaching Materials in Elementary Health Education. Howard E. West cott. San Francisco, Calif.: Howard Chandler, 1959. Pp. 32 each. \$1.00 each. Two new teacher's guides.

Wonders of Water Life. E. Scagliotta, New York: Exposition Press, 1959. Pp. 49. \$2.50. A child'5 introduction to microscopic animal

Graded Selections mal Reading Diagnosis, Grades for through 3. Nila Banton Smith. New York: New York University Press, 1959. Pp. xiv + 183. \$3.00.

SECONDARY

Images of the Future: A New Approach to the Secondary School. J. Lloyd Trump. Pp. 48. Available free from the Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School, 200 Gregory Hall, Urbana, 111.

The Secondary-School Teacher and Library Services. NEA Research Monograph 1958-M1. Pp. 37. Available from National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington 6, D. C. \$.50.

Good Manners: The Magic Key. Margaret Stephenson and Ruth Millett. Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight & McKnight Publishing Company,

1959. Pp. 72. \$.80.

Words and Ideas; A Reading Skills Workbook. Mary Didas. New York: College Entrance Publications Corporation, 1959. Pp. 83. \$.65.

Reading; Grades 7-8-9. A curriculum bulletin of the New York City Board of Education. Pp. xviii + 253. Available from Publication Sales Office, 110 Livingston St., Brooklyn 1, N. Y. \$1.00.

Teaching Science in Today's Secondary Schools. Walter A. Thurber and Alfred T. Collette. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1959. Pp. xiv + 640. \$6.95.

Modern Secondary Education; Basic Principles and Practices. William M. Alexander and J. Galen Saylor. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1959. Pp. xiii + 765. \$6.50.

Our American Government Today. Edith E. Starratt and Morris Lewenstein. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958. Pp. ix + 516. \$4.48.

College

Complete College Typing. Esta Ross Stuart, Vernon V. Payne, and Ruth I. Anderson. Englewood Cliffs N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. Pp. 244, \$3.80.

Junior Colleges and Specialized Schools and Colleges. (Third Edi-Porter Sargent, tion.) Boston: 1959. Pp. 448. \$5.00.

Basic Statistical Methods. N. M. Downie and R. W. Heath. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1959, Pp.

xii + 289. \$4.50.

Psychology in Education. Sidney L. Pressey, Francis P. Robinson, and John E. Horrocks. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1959. Pp. xi + 658, \$6.50.

CUIDANCE

Engineering. Edward H. Robie. Petroleum Engineering. C. V. Kirkpatrick. Cambridge, Mass.: Bellman Publishing Company, 1959. Pp. 36 and 24, respectively. \$1 each.

Your Exciting Career as a Secretary. A 24-page booklet available from The National Association and Council of Business Schools, 2400 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D.C. \$.15. Discounts in quantity.

Area Vocational Education Programs. A 40-page booklet available from American Vocational Association, Inc., 1010 Vermont Ave., N.W., Washington 5, D.C. \$.35.

GENERAL

The Psychology of Exceptional Children. (Third Edition.) Karl C. Garrison and Dewey G. Force, Jr. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1959. Pp. vi + 586. \$6.00.

Unions and Union Leaders of Their Own Choosing. Clark Kerr. The Corporation and the Republic. Scott Buchanan. Economic Power and the Free Society. A. A. Berle, Three Fund for the Republic pamphlets in a series on The Free Society. Pp. 24, 28, and 20. Single copies free from the Fund for the Republic headquarters, 60 E. 42nd St., New York 17, N. Y.

Local Planning for Better School

Districts. C. O. Fitzwater and Winston L. Roesch. U. S. Office of Education Pamphlet No. 121. Pp. iv + 20. Available from U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. \$.15.

How Do Business and Schools Work Together. A 47-page booklet available from the National Citizens Council for Better Schools, 9 E. 40th St., New York 16, N. Y.

Human Types; An Introduction to Social Anthropology. Raymond Firth. New York: New American Library of World Literature, 1958. Pp. 176. \$.50, paperbound. A new Mentor book.

Audio-Visuals

They See What You Mean; Visual Communication with the Overhead Projector. Johnson City, N.Y.: Ozalid Audio-Visual Department, 1959. Pp. 88. \$3.75. Includes descriptions of the many methods available for production of effective overhead projection materials.

The Mayflower Compact; Washington's Farewell Address and Monroe Doctrine; Franklin D. Roosevelt's Four Freedom's Speech. New York: Enrichment Teaching Materials, 1959. \$5.95. Two new Enrichment Records in the Documents of America series.

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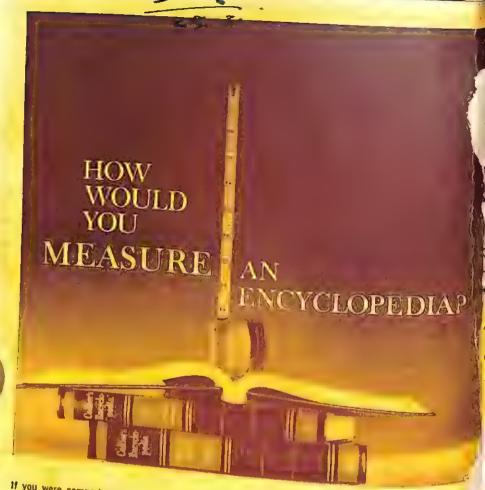
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25th Anniversary Year

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Volume XXV

January 1960

Number 5

Some Points of Difference

The Conant Report - A Critique

FRANK E. HENZLIK

In The School Executive

HE secondary schools in the U. S. are in a period of wide-spread re-examination of course offerings and program changes. To help schools gain a clearer understanding of the task ahead, national foundations, universities, and leaders interested in the educational welfare of the individual citizen and the nation have encouraged a number of studies. Prominent among these is The American High School Today, by James B. Conant.

Dr. Conant, in his report, sets the stage by describing briefly the unique characteristics of American education. He places special emphasis on the so-called comprehensive high schools—the kind of high schools that provide a high degree of comprehensiveness in their offerings. More specifically Dr. Conant seeks to present a high-school program that fulfills three functions, namely: (1) a general education for all the pupils as future citizens of a democracy,

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(2) a good elective program for students whose full-time education terminates with high-school graduation, and (3) a satisfactory program for those who intend to continue study in colleges and universities.

With these functions in mind Dr. Conant and his associates set up criterions for selecting schools that were highly comprehensive. Among the schools selected for visiting were those in which more than half the students terminated full-time education at graduation, and therefore offered good vocational programs, and schools which offered programs for students of high ability as determined by IQ tests and which placed special em-

phasis on subjects that challenge the academically gifted.

Some 55 schools in 18 states were visited. Most of these were in cities with a population of 10,000 to 100,000. Schools in the largest urban centers, and schools that had fewer than 100 students in the graduating class were not included as they did not meet the criterions. Only eight schools were judged as having met all the criterions set up for a comprehensive high school.

MOST WILL AGREE

In reading Dr. Conant's report most Americans will agree with him that our high-school programs must never lose sight of the importance of providing equal educational opportunity for all and that each should have an opportunity to be educated to the limit of his ability. Dr. Conant points out that we must strive to raise the quality of our high-school product and that American schools must find ways of identifying the best endowed and specifically talented minds and challenging their imagination.

For the talented student, as determined largely by IQ tests, a minimum program is recommended—"four years of mathematics, four years of one foreign language, three years of science, in addition to four years of English, and three years of social studies..."

But if real leadership is to come from the talented, as proposed, should not the humanities, the arts, and social studies receive equal if not more emphasis than that recommended as a minimum for science, mathematics, and foreign language? Do a fixed number of credits guarantee quality in learning? The report seems to imply that all the talented youngsters can benefit equally from exactly the same courses and experiences. The IQ alone is not a sufficient criterion for discovering potential that deserves attention.

Also in what assumes to be a method of curriculum scientific evaluation, it is difficult to understand why the results of recent research have been given little or no consideration. The results of such studies as the Eight Year Study, Wrightstone's Appraisal of Experimental High School Practices, and the recent studies of learning and adolescence by the National Society for the Study of Education would have formed a helpful, if not a better, basis for drawing conclusions and making curriculum recommendations.

Many will heartily agree with Dr. Conant when he insists that high-school programs must be comprehensive if individual differences, needs, and abilities of American youth are to be adequately taken into consideration. To insist, however, that comprehensive high-school programs can be provided only in high schools with graduating classes of 100 or more will not be accepted by those who have had experience or are now engaged in working in the more constructive small-school programs. There are,

of course, many small high schools that should be eliminated. We need more intelligent school district organization in many places. But there are other ways to improve the quality and range of small high-school offerings which the report fails to consider. The Nebraska Supervised Study and Small Community Education Programs, the Catskill Area Project in Small School Design, and recent television projects for enriching and extending the range of educational experience in small schools are but a few types of projects in which positive approaches are yielding good results.

The strength of Dr. Conant's report is its genuine concern for providing good sound education for all youth and especially those who are to become our leaders. The suggestions made in the report are not motivated by the fear of Communism or the surge of propaganda about Soviet education. Dr. Conant makes little use of comparisons of our schools with Russia. In fact, he believes that such comparisons are unsound and misleading and result in false impressions and foolish conclusions.

The report, however, is somewhat subjective in its evaluation and recommendations relative to a high-school curriculum. The reader is left with the impression that the criterions used were too personal

for evaluating schools and when applied alone may be misleading. Scholastic attainment and academic achievement are the chief factors for consideration. Practical and concrete learning is also necessary for all students. Making the high school really comprehensive demands change and sound constructive experiences in a wide range of subjects including industrial arts, business education, home nomics, agriculture, and others. The report does admit such needs do exist but relegates them to secondary importance.

Furthermore, this study overlooks existing knowledge and results of experiments in learning and teaching. Perhaps this also accounts for the lack of emphasis on the importance of other than academic values, attitudes, and the experience of living and learning together in high schools.

report on The Dr. Conant's School Today American High should, however, be read by everyone interested in the improvement of high schools and secondary education in America today. Especially should it be carefully studied by public-schools teacher and administrators as well as members of school boards and laymen concerned with present-day problems and their relation to secondary education and the organization of high schools in a free society.

HE typical school administrator's reaction to his many bosses: yessir, nosir, ulcer.—From Phi Delta Kappan.

Sense for One Generation Is Nonsense for Another

What Happened to Progressive Education?

LAWRENCE A. CREMIN

In Teachers College Record

HE death of the Progressive Education Association in 1955, and the passing of its journal, Progressive Education, two years later, marked the end of an era in American pedagogy. Yet one would hardly have realized it from the pitifully small group of mourners at both funerals.

Somehow, a movement which had for half a century enlisted the enthusiasm, the loyalty, the imagination, and the energy of large segments of the American public and the teaching profession became, in the decade following World War II, anathema, immortalized only in jokes which begin, "There was this mixed-up youngster who went to this ultraprogressive school," or in cartoons like H. T. Webster's classic drawing in the "Life's Darkest Moments" series picturing the day little Mary got a D in blocks and sand piles. And, of course, in vitriolic attacks on John Dewey, mostly by people who have never read him. (I might say he is too often defended by people who haven't read him either.)

The popular notion today, I'm afraid, is that progressive education represented the effort to remove all restrictions on children, to allow them to behave as they please—after the fashion of The New Yorker cartoon in which the children

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ask the teacher, "Do we have to do what we want to do today?" What, then, was progressive education?

The word progressive provides the clue to what it really was: merely the educational phase of that larger progressive movement which was developing in American political and social life. Progressive education began as progressivism in education: a many-sided effort to use the schools to improve the lives of individuals.

In the minds of progressives this meant several things, such as the broadening of the program and function of the school to include a direct concern for the health, vocation, and the quality of family and community. It meant applying in the classroom the pedagogical principles derived from new scientific research in psychology and the social sciences. It meant the tailoring of instruction more and more to the different kinds and classes of children who were being brought within the purview of the school. Pro-

gressivism in education also implied the faith that everyone could participate in building a new culture, a popular culture, one in which all could share not only in the benefits of the new sciences but in the pursuit of the arts as well.

These were the more general commitments. But from the beginning, progressive education meant very different things to different people. To the social settlement workers, for instance, it meant transforming the school community center which would provide what they called "social education." To the National Association of Manufacturers it meant vocational training, pure and simple. To the General Education Board, a foundation which distributed millions of Rockefeller dollars to educational programs in the South, progressive education meant demonstration farms and an increasing war against hookworm, using the schools as medical-aid stations.

A great deal of "progressive" experiment had already taken place in both public and private schools before the Progressive Education Association came into existence. Nevertheless, the founding of this Association in 1919 marked a turning point in the movement. The organization was started by a small group of private school people on the fringes of the cause. It soon broadened, however, and became a spearhead of reform. Its membership climbed rapidly, passing 5000 in 1927 and reaching a peak

of 10,500 in 1938. It inaugurated a quarterly, Progressive Education, which served as a forum for the exchange of new ideas and a clearing house for educational innovations of every conceivable kind. It held conferences, summer institutes, and workshops galore; it sponsored studies and carried on experiments; it published useful materials; it gave the progressive education movement shape and entity. During the heyday of the Association, in the 1930's, educational reforms made tremendous headway in school systems across the nation; and I think we can say that at the beginning of World War II, progressive education enjoyed a substantial measure of acceptance in many quarters, particularly among intellectuals and other influential segments of the middle class.

Why, then, the cartoons and the spoofs? Why the public withdrawal? Why the loss of favor? Why the steady decline after 1945 and the collapse a decade later? I would suggest five reasons.

First, distortion. As frequently happens with social movements, success brought schism in the ranks. The movement developed factions, and then within some of the factions there arose cults, cliques, and fanatics. The movement thus became strife-ridden, given to bandwagon behavior, dominated by the idealogical feuding of minorities. The strife made headlines, and within these headlines lie the seeds of many current caricatures.

Second, I would cite the nega-

tivism inherent in this and in all social reform movements. many protestors against injustice, the early progressives knew better what they were against than what they were for. And when one gets a true picture of the inequities of American schools during the quarter-century before World War I, one realizes they had much to be against. The physical and pedagogical conditions in many schools were indescribably bad. I recall a survey by a New York journalist in the 1890's for a series of magazine articles. He went to 30 cities, and what he discovered was shocking. He found public apathy and political corruption; he found a terribly provincial curriculum being taught by appallingly incompetent hacks. Difficult as it is to believe, many schools were that bad.

Like any protest movement, progressive education developed slogans and war cries to stir the faithful to action. Shibboleths like "the whole child" or "creative selfexpression" served as powerful battering-rams against the old pedagogical order, but in classroom practice they weren't very good guides to positive action. The generation which invented them knew what they meant. But the generation which followed adopted them as a collection of ready-made clichés, clichés which weren't very helpful when the public began to raise searching questions about the

Third, and again this is a common phenomenon of social reform, the movement became the victim of its own success. Much of what it preached was simply incorporated into the schools at large. Once the schools did change, though, progressives found themselves wedded to specific programs and unable to formulate next steps. Like some liberals who continued to fight for the right of labor to organize long after the Wagner Act had done its work, many progressives continued to fight against stationary desks in schools where moveable desks were already in use.

IDEAS BECOME INERT

For some young people in the post-World War II generation, the ideas of the progressive became inert—in Whitehead's sense of "right thinking" which no longer moves to action. The old war cries, whatever their validity or lack of it, had a hollow sound; they no longer generated enthusiasm. Young people were developing different preoccupations, different concerns, different rallying points. Here is expressed a problem of generations, and we must deal realistically with it, like it or not.

As a fourth reason for the decline of the movement, I would cite the more general post-World War II swing toward conservatism in political and social thought. This is readily comprehensible, since if progressive education was part of progressivism writ large, it should not be surprising if a reaction to it comes as a phase of conservatism writ large. We have seen dur

ing the past decade a decided reaction to many political ideas of the thirties; to many of the social ideas of the thirties; to many of the child-rearing ideas of the thirties. The reaction to many of the pedagogical ideas of the thirties has come along with them.

A DIFFERENT AGE

The final and perhaps the most important reason for the decline of the movement is that American society has simply gone beyond many of the proposals of the progressives. We live in a very different age from the one which gave birth to progressive education. Our industrial economy is entering on an era marked by the harnessing of vast new sources of energy and the rapid extension of automatic control in production. This prodigious advance has rendered many of our notions of vocational education anachronistic; and it has thrust to the fore the school's traditional responsibility for transmitting and extending knowledge of every sort and variety. You will recall that the Rockefeller Brothers Report on education last year indicated that it was this pressure rather than any sputnik which had created the "crisis" situation in education.

Then, too, the rise of new educational media, the proliferation of social agencies under public sponsorship, and the rapid extension of industry-sponsored training programs have shifted the balance of forces in education. Whereas the central thrust of the progressive

movement was centripetal-it revolted against narrowness and formalism and sought to extend the function and services of the school -it seems to me that the central thrust of our own period is centrifugal-it is seeking to define more precisely the central responsibilities of the school, to delineate those things which must be done by the school because, if the school doesn't do them, they won't get done.

My point here is merely to urge that what is progressive for one era is not necessarily progressive for another, a truism which reform movements must bear in mind when they become too wedded to specific programs. What makes sense to one generation may well be nonsense to the next.

Granted this, it seems to me that progressive education in the best sense may well be needed today as much as ever. We may have gone beyond the reform programs of the last generation, but there are still kindergartens that could learn much from Patty Smith Hill, slum schools that could take profitable lessons from Jane Addams, and colleges that still haven't realized that the natural curiosity of the young can be a magnificent propellent to learning. The Progressive Education Association is dead; and progressive education itself needs searching reappraisal. But I think we will find that some of the best of what the progressives tried to teach has yet to be applied in American schools.

Adolescents and the Automobile

IVAN L. ELAND

In National Parent-Teacher

UTOMOBILES have revolutionized adolescent life. Cars take youngsters out of reach of adult supervision and control for hours. They occupy a good deal of the teen-agers' time and attention. Thoughtful parents and teachers are deeply and rightly concerned about the relationship between automobiles and adolescent morals. And they worry with reason about the effect of cars on school work and grades.

The problem of adolescents and the automobile is a complex one and it involves much more than physical safety. Safety is a primary concern, of course, We should recognize, however, that when we are scarching for ways to provide a traffic safety program for youth, we are concerned with more than mere driving skills and knowledge. Our broad objective is to develop in young people a strong sense of personal and social responsibility for good conduct and good citizenship.

All adolescents need education in safe driving, but the youngster who-as a small child-has been

taught habits of safety has a decided advantage. His good habits carry over to the safe operation of motor vehicles on the highway. And he has learned another kind of good habit if he has parents who respect the law and drive safely themselves. If we want abiding children, we'll have to be law-abiding parents.

Setting a good example and teaching safety habits to children are the basic steps parents should take to prepare the way for a safe and sane adolescence. What next? Participate in the community's safety effort. Find out what projects and activities are being provided in school and community. Do all you can to make these programs more effective. Get them started if they don't exist.

Driving codes developed by and for students can be an effective influence on the highway behavior of many young drivers. The usual procedure is for a teen-age driving club, the student safety committee, or some other student organization

Ivan L. Eland is Traffic Safety Consultant, School and College Department, National Safety Council. Reported from National Parent Teacher, LIV (October 1959), 4-7

to draft a code after research, study, and discussion. The drafted code is brought before a student assembly for more discussion, revision, and final approval. Then the student organization provides membership cards, with a driver's pledge on the reverse side, for all students who agree to drive by the code.

In most places where they are being used, these codes have been the product of many hours of serious study and discussion. This, I believe, is evidence that young people are ready and willing to assume responsibility for improving their driving behavior. Accepted by the high-school student body, such a code of ethics makes the youthful driver feel that he is acting with the approval of his companions when he tries to conform to it.

Some communities have a teenage traffic safety program that goes beyond a code of driver ethics. Such programs might be called student driving-control programs. The first step in setting up such a program is to find an enthusiastic sponsor and a group of interested students who will sell the plan to others-to the student body, the faculty, school and public officials, the P.T.A., and other citizen groups. The next step is to form a broadly representative safety committee, operating as a branch or committee of the student council. The committee formulates safety Policies, regulations, and practices and embodies them in a code to be published in booklet form after they have been approved by the student organization. Activities developed by driving-control programs in various schools have included the issuance of student driving permits when the student and his car have passed tests and inspection, the operation of a car inspection check lane, the monitoring of the school parking area, and the operation of a student traffic court where violators of the driving code are tried.

STUDENT COURTS

With this kind of control teenagers in many parts of the country are successfully conducting semiofficial voluntary courts with jurisdiction over juveniles between 14 years and the legal majority age. The aim is to combat careless driving, improve safety attitudes, and keep youngsters out of municipal court until they have had a chance to learn the importance of safe driving. Students selected by the student council serve as court personnel, using as their guide a manual of procedure that sets the penalty for each type of violation. Usually the sentences require the teen-ager to attend traffic school for a stated number of times and to get 80 percent on an examination on safety rules and attitudes.

Although these student traffic courts are fulfilling their purpose in many places, a word of caution is necessary. Some educators believe that safety education, to be effective, must stress positive motivation rather than threats and

Others believe that a penalties. high-school student is not mature enough to assume the role of judge. Those who favor student courts point out how much the opinion and acceptance of his friends means to the adolescent. In the court program he has a chance to tell his side of the story to a student who can see the situation from his point of view. The judge and other court personnel, in a serious but friendly way, help the violator to see how important it is for everyone to obey, and live by, rules. These are views which must be explored. Certainly no school or community should organize a student court without first making sure that students, parents, teachers, and school and public officials agree on its value.

The projects mentioned here are only a few of the many, varied safety activities that high-school students can undertake and are undertaking in schools and communities throughout the country. Given opportunities and some guidance and encouragement, young people show eagerness, ingenuity, and steadfastness in carrying on programs to safeguard their own lives and the lives of others.

Of all the measures to make driving safe, none is more important than driver education. Yet ever since Russia whirled its first sputnik into orbit, some people have been proposing that we drop driver education programs from our high schools in favor of more emphasis on mathematics and science. The

right answer to that proposal was made, I think, by the School and College Conference of the National Safety Council in a policy statement of April 1958. "Driver education is a fundamental preparation for life in our American society," said the Conference. "To train a scientific genius to peak performance is futile if, in a split second, his productive life is lost because he or some other driver lacked proper preparation for carrying out this universal activity of present-day life."

The public school is charged with the responsibility to teach safe driving because it is the only agency that can effectively reach the majority of youth just as they reach legal driving age—the time when their motivation to learn to drive well is at its peak. It is to our high school that we must turn for effective education to reduce motor fatalities among the age group that has the highest rate of all.

To offset the pressure by those who would eliminate driver education as a school responsibility, we need strong action by individual parents and P.T.A.'s to strengthen the programs and extend them to all youth.

Traffic safety is important to us as teachers, as parents, and as drivers on the highways. It is a responsibility. Let's stop having night-mares over the teen-age automobile problem. Let's use our waking hours to solve it. It can be done.

RY

What Do the Courts Say?

Collective

Bargaining

In The Teacher and the Law

TATE laws and the regulations of state boards of education to a great extent fix the conditions of teacher employment. Obviously, a local school board has no legal authority to adopt local policy in conflict with these state provisions. On the other hand, a school board has discretionary authority to fix local policies. May teachers, then, legally bargain with their employing school boards on employment matters that are not definitely fixed by state provisions?

Several questions must be answered before it can be determined whether or not teachers may bargain collectively. For example, may public-school teachers organize? The First and the Fourth Amendments to the Constitution contain provisions which permit citizens—and public-school teachers as citizens—to organize and join occupa-

tional organizations and to choose a representative to petition the government in the name of the group. Limitations, however, have been placed, by some state statutes and by judicial decisions, on the right of public employes-policemen, firemen, and to some extent, teachers-to organize. On the other hand, the fact that many teachers are members of occupational organizations, both professional and labor, and that their membership has rarely been challenged points to the conclusion that their right to join such organizations has been accepted generally. The important consideration would seem to be that the organization must not interfere with their obligations and duties as employes of the public.

Collective bargaining had its beginnings in private employment. Can the procedures employed by unions in dealing with private employers be transferred to public employment? If not, can they be modified to fit into public employment?

Probably the most difficult problem raised by the transfer of collective-bargaining procedures to public employment is the determination of who is the employer. In private employment control of

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the purse strings and of labor relations are in the same hand. In public employment they are not. Ultimately, the employer of publicschool teachers is the public itself. With whom, then, does the teachers organization negotiate? There are four possibilities: the superintendent, the school board, the legislature, and the general public.

Some of the difficulties of negotiation with these groups are immediately obvious. Taking them in reverse order, here are some of the problems. Negotiation per se with the general public is impossible. The alternative is public relations. Some of the purse strings are held here in the form of taxes. Negotiation of a collective-bargaining agreement with the legislature is impossible. The alternative is lobbying. Some of the purse strings are here in the form of appropriations. Negotiation of a collectivebargaining agreement with the school board is possible if it covers only those items over which the board has control. Some of the purse strings are here in the form of budgeting and setting salary schedules. Mediation of some problems with the superintendent is possible, but there is no power to negotiate an agreement. None of the purse strings are here.

The school board seems the most likely to have the power to negotiate an agreement. But the employment of teachers is governed by law more than is the employment of private employes. This means that a school board, if it

wished to bargain collectively, would have fewer things to bargain about than a private employer. But a school board does have some discretionary powers regarding its employes, and so the question is: Could it negotiate regarding these? To answer this question, past court decisions should be examined. What do they say?

When collective-bargaining agreements in public employment have been held illegal by the courts, decisions have rested on the inability of the governmental unit to enter into such agreements rather than on the inability of the employe organization to do so. What are some of the reasons given by the courts for striking down these bargains in public employment? That legislative powers cannot be delegated; therefore, they cannot be bargained or contracted away. That the agreement preferentially treats a particular employe organization to the exclusion of other employes. Or that provisions of the agreement violate a statute or board rule or regulation.

AGREEMENTS UPHELD

What kinds of limited bargaining agreements for public employes have been upheld by the courts? An agreement providing for wage, hour, and working conditions for public employes was upheld by the Supreme Court of Washington. The Supreme Court of Errors of Connecticut held that a teachers association could bargain collec-

tively for the pay and working conditions which might be in the power of the board of education to grant.

It is well known that teachers organizations negotiate with school boards on matters of concern to teachers. This fact was recognized by the Connecticut Court. But this negotiation usually results in unilateral action by the board rather than in a contract signed by the board and a representative of the teachers on behalf of all the teachers. This is one way that collective bargaining has been modified in public employment. It has been modified in another way: Whatever decision the board makes is applicable to all the teachers, not just to those belonging to the organization which bargained with the board.

A few states have provided for mediation procedure or collective bargaining. For example, New Hampshire towns, which operate the public schools, are specifically authorized to recognize, bargain, and enter into collective-bargaining contracts with unions of employes. Although the statute uses the term union, it seems unlikely that the courts would construe this so narrowly as to exclude other types of employe organizations. Minnesota and Pennsylvania have provided for the adjustment of publicemploye grievances. Panels are set up with membership composed of three individuals, one chosen by the employe, one by the governmental unit, and the third by both

of these. In Pennsylvania, however, when the school system is involved the third member is the state superintendent or his nominee. If such panels cannot settle the matter through negotiation and conference, the findings of a formal hearing are sent to the state legislature. This procedure is not collective bargaining, but it does set up machinery which can be the means by which many problems can be solved.

RIGHT TO STRIKE

The union shop and the closed shop and the right to strike are concepts separate from collective bargaining. But they are closely related to collective bargaining in private employment and should be considered in any legal analysis of collective bargaining in public employment. The traditional view of the courts is that the closed and union shops have no place in publie employment. Most of the collective bargaining agreements which have been invalidated by decision have contained closed-shop provisions.

In the matter of strikes, at present it is settled that public employes, including school teachers, have no right to strike. Such strikes have usually been enjoined, and there have been few appeals. Several states have enacted antistrike laws applicable to its public employes. A few of these mention school employes in the lists of categories to which the statute ap-

plies.

A British Point of View

American Schools Surprised Us

HELEN and DONALD G. MACRAE

In NEA Journal

HE only thing worrying us about a six-month visit to the United States was the idea of having our two young girls face the frightening prospect of American elementary public schools. Before we left England, we were told horror stories about U. S. schools, and to these we could add our own prejudices, formed and set in an atmosphere of conscious superiority.

Of course, we did have certain positive expectations about what our children would find: splendid buildings, splendidly equipped. But within these buildings we anticipated a blackboard jungle in miniature, tempered by an industrious drive at useless "projects."

Our friends and professional edu-

cators were united in the opinion that educationally it would all be valueless, even harmful. However, we consoled ourselves by maintaining that it would be "a wonderful experience for our girls just to live in America," and that they were "at an age when they could quickly make up the loss once they were back in London."

We arrived in California in February, and our children were enrolled in the neighborhood school. As they received their introduction to American education, we found that many of our preconceived ideas had to be sharply modified. First of all, it was clear that our children were getting an excellent and orthodox education-definitely superior at certain points to that which they had been receiving in London. On the other hand, their school building, though only four years old, was inferior in almost every way to what we had known in England. In fact, American elementary education, as we saw it, exactly reversed our anticipations.

Perhaps the least important point-school buildings-can be disposed of first. New schools England are imaginative, expensive, and well calculated to stimulate and excite the child. Materials are good and plans are free; space is used dynamically and incorporates the natural form of the site. By contrast, the schools we have seen in America are, at best, handsome and rather monumental from the outside, but rigid and limited from within. They are less lavish, less well built, and bear far less

evidence of thought, foresight, or expense. No doubt we have seen only a limited, perhaps unrepresentative, sample of American schools built in the last decade, but on the basis of what we have seen, no other judgment seems possible.

But what goes on in the school is far more important than the building. Here our experience has been immensely happy.

HAPPY EXPERIENCE

Our state school in England had provided no report about our children which might have helped their American hosts assign them to their place in the school system. without fuss, both girls were put into their appropriate grades along with children chronologically older -schooling in Britain begins usually at five, not six-but with the same amount of school experience. These grades were internally divided to cater to different aptitudes and skills. Within a few days, the children were assigned to what we still think were their appropriate groups in, respectively, grades 1 and 3.

The teaching was excellent, not

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only in the basic skills of literacy and arithmetic, but in a much wider curriculum than is found in Britain. Both children were given regular home assignments, not too much, but enough to inculcate good work habits and to supplement the classroom. The books used differed from those familiar to them in England but seemed of good quality, and they enjoyed working with them and learning from them.

One thing that both our fiveyear-old and our eight-year-old particularly benefited from was their study of the San Francisco area where we were living. This sort of local study was new and exciting for them and, of course, of great help in orienting them to their new world.

We had our first parent-teacher conference in March. On the whole, parents seemed more welcome in American schools than in English schools. The teachers made detailed and sensitive reports that involved shrewd (and not always favorable) assessment of our girls academically, socially, and physically.

Our experience continued to be happy and our contact with the school remained close. The pupils were of wide diversity of ethnic and cultural origin, but there seemed to be no friction. Monthly parent-teacher evenings, an open house, and a May Day festival kept us in touch with the staff and gave us a feeling of participation in the life of the school.

When our period of living in America came to a close we were given reports from the school which were precise and clear and were of real value in returning the girls to their appropriate place in the English school system. The entire experience was a fortunate and satisfactory one. We will remember it with gratitude, and the benefit to our children should be permanent.

But one problem of a new kind was raised for one of us-a problem arising from teaching college stu-American university students working for first degrees certainly seemed less in command of the basic skills of literacy and calculation than their British opposite numbers. This is not just a matter of selection. British students are a smaller proportion of the total population, but taking groups of equivalent ability, the point still seems true. How can this be squared with our experience of the elementary school? Could it be that we were just very lucky?

Surely not; if there is a failure in the schools of America and some basis for the British stereotype of American education, it would seem to us to be present rather in the higher grades and in the high school.

If American students are at least as good in their verbal abilities as their British opposites but less good in their written work (and we believe this to be true), what accounts for this? Why should so many have trouble in organizing not just essays, but even notes and paragraphs? Why should they have trouble in knowing what to include and what

to eliminate and how to organize material with logical coherence and cogency?

We were told, as one explanation, that the training of the American teacher was largely in teaching method and in educational theory and that while this is excellent for the instruction of young children, it is somewhat less useful for teaching high-school subject matter.

Again we have been told by teachers that the weight of administration and the authority of administrators—certainly greater than in Britain—is most heavily felt in the high schools and hinders education there. We have no way of judging this, but what we saw of school administration hardly seemed to warrant such a conclusion.

Almost universally it has been suggested to us that the range of choices open to the student in the high school makes the tasks of the school so complex that the quality of work suffers. This argument, too, seems odd; freedom should not handicap education—quite the reverse!

We, at least, must leave the problem there. We found an admirable situation at the elementary level, and the caliber of a great American university impressed us. Between the two, there seemed to be something of a gap. What we can be sure of is that one British family found, in a modest setting, an educational content for which they are grateful and which will be recalled with affection and respect.

Measurement of Teacher Merit for Salary Purposes

WILLIAM A. McCall and Gertrude R. Krause

In Journal of Educational Research

HE growth of the teacher in merit including the evaluation of that merit as it may be used for fixing salaries was the objective of this investigation. Seventy-three sixth-grade rural and city Negro and white teachers in the schools of North Carolina participated.

Since the criterion of merit adopted for the study was the amount of good all-round growth each teacher produced in his or her class, the initial status of the pupils in September and the final status in May of what is sometimes called the nine R's-readin', 'ritin', 'rithmetic, research, reasoning, reporting, relationship of persons, recreation, and responsible work skills-was measured.

The growths each teacher produced in the above nine areas were combined, with acceptable weightings according to importance—and such other conditions, including IQ, believed necessary—into a single criterion-of-merit score. These final corrected scores showed a surprisingly wide range of teacher efficiency, the poorest rating being 20 and the highest 88.

Obviously it is impractical to employ such an extensive program of testing and estimation whenever it is desired to discover a teacher's

William A. McCall and Gertrude R. Krause are members of the faculty at University of Miami, Coral Gables, Florida. Reported from Journal of Educational Research, LIII (October 1959), 73–75.

merit, but the procedure is not without value. Accordingly, an attempt was made to find out whether there were any more easily measured characteristics of teachers which correlated with the criterion. In general, the findings agreed with those previously discovered in the similar but more limited investigations of Lelah Mae Crabbs. The following, briefly stated, are the findings obtained:

1. Superintendents, supervisors, principals, and colleagues tended to rate good teachers low and poor teachers high. The correlation for ratings by principals and ratings by peers was the same, —.11. College and university professors were no better judges of merit, for the marks they assigned these teachers when they were in training also showed a negative correlation with the criterion of —.11.

2. The only persons in the school system who were found to

be professionally competent to judge the worth of teachers were their sixth-grade pupils (.36) and the teachers themselves (.39) when giving a confidential selfrating.

3. Training, an almost universally employed basis for evaluating teacher merit and fixing salaries, was somewhat better than drawing shuffled names out of a hat (.13).

4. Years of service, usually referred to as experience, another customary basis for determining the worth and salary of teachers, showed a zero (-.04) correlation with merit. This finding is supported by the further fact that young teachers averaged higher criterion scores, or over-all growth in pupils, than did older teachers.

5. The teacher's knowledge of the subject matter showed no correlation (-.06) with efficiency. Perhaps those who know the most cannot resist the temptation to lecture, and those who learn with their pupils are better teachers.

6. Marital status, often used in times past to judge the desirability of employing teachers, showed some correlation, but it has been used in the wrong direction, for married teachers were superior to unmarried ones. This does not indicate, of course, that boards of education should set up marriage bureaus in order to improve teaching, for quite possibly men have preferred as wives those who are good teachers, the dynamic factors being physical and emotional normality or something else not yet

identified. Emotional normality was measured and showed a positive correlation (.30) with merit.

OTHER METHODS

Other less-commonly used methods of measuring merit were also explored. Of these, the one which proved to have the highest correlation with teacher merit was the McCall-Herring Personality Measure, when used as a rating-bypupils device. The scale consists of five items-"is clean," "has good manners," "keeps temper," "is kind," and "is good citizen." Relationships for each item were computed separately and the correlations ranged from .22 to .39, all being positive. A comparison of these results with the results obtained from ratings of teachers by their peers, principals, and supervisors, indicates quite clearly that a teacher's pupils are far better judges of a teacher's merit than are professionally trained adults.

Krause, whose primary interest is in guidance and counseling, made a further study of that portion of the pupil's measurements dealing with personality, together with the various measurements of their teachers as gathered by Mc-Call. When measures of the characteristics of the 73 teachers were correlated with the twice-refined measure of pupil personality growth, some interesting results were secured. For example, most significant positive relation ship found was between personality growth and the pupils

ratings of their teachers' personalities. Also, classes taught by teachers whose average college grades were below 90 percent achieved good growth while classes whose teachers averaged above 90 made very small gains. Low growth in classes taught was shown by teachers whose ages ranged from 49 to 56 when compared with classes taught by teachers whose ages ranged from 29 to 42.

One of the important findings of both of these studies was the relatively close relationship between teacher personality and pupils' comprehensive growth. While it is true that causal connections cannot be inferred from correlations, the correlations found in these studies, when reasonably interpreted, and in the absence of conflicting evidence, appear to justify the following suggestions:

1. Teacher-training institutions might attempt to discover what makes teachers good and attempt to incorporate these qualities in prospective teachers.

2. More attention should given to selecting or developing teacher personalities which are helpful to pupils.

3. Experience as currently evaluated should be replaced as a basis for fixing salaries by a more defensible criterion. This must, of course, be accomplished by gradual change.

4. Ratings by superintendents, supervisors, principals, colleagues, or professors in teachers colleges should not be accepted as the sole or valid criterion until persons in these positions have been profes-sionally re-educated for this responsibility. Most administrators will feel that this finding supports their contention that they should not be asked to rate teachers for salary purposes.

5. Teachers colleges should not expect teachers to become more effective in their profession merely as a result of acquiring more knowledge of the subject being taught. There is probably some critical minimum and this may be different for different types of sub-

jects and schools.

6. The findings of McCall and Crabbs would appear to invalidate a large number of researches which are based on the assumption that the worth of a teacher can be validly judged by superior officials, or based on training, experience, and knowledge of the subject taught. This means that future research employing a merit criterion, should use either pupils' growth as a criterion or some combination of teacher characteristics really known to correlate with merit.

N a recent survey, more than 56 percent of members of Phi Delta Kappa, professional education fraternity, appropriate the provential and the property of the prop proved some form of merit rating, but only 7 percent believed a rating is now available which is generally acceptable able.

John Dewey as Teacher

TOTAL CONTROL CONTROL

HAROLD A. LARRABEE

In School and Society

HERE must be hundreds of persons living today who once enjoyed the inestimable privilege of being numbered among the students of John Dewey. It can safely be said of them that they have one thing in common: a total inability to recognize in the current journalistic stereotype of Dewey as bogeyman and personal devil bent on ruining American education, the modest, humane, intellectually humble Vermonter who was the ablest philosopher America has yet produced.

My own brief experience in Dewey's classroom took place in a graduate course in Teachers College during World War I, just before his departure to lecture in Japan and China. Those were difficult days for a teacher of teachers, with seats emptying daily as students went off to join the armed services. It was not easy, especially in parade-ridden Manhattan, to keep one's mind on the problems of educating the generations to come.

Current traducers of Dewey are fond of portraying him as the incorrigible optimist about human nature, somehow immune to evil and suffering, and exempt from the agonies of times of trouble. It is true that, in periods of mass hysteria, Dewey was the least hysterical of men. But his critics forget that he was born only four days after John Brown's raid on Harpers Ferry and that he died one day after General Eisenhower turned over the command of the allied forces in Europe to General Ridgeway in 1952. Few Americans have seen more years of crisis.

To discuss Dewey as teacher is to enter a region that abounds in paradoxes. The central one can be stated simply. We know that Dewey has had an immense influence on education, and not solely through his written words. Literally dozens of his students became pivotal figures in this country's intellectual life. Yet, by all the ordinary criterions, Dewey was

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JANUARY

a poor teacher. "The mystery," said the late Irwin Edman, who knew him well, "lies in how he affected these men."

The enigma is not easy to solve. Student after student will tell you that Dewey's teaching changed the course of his or her thinking fundamentally. But each one also will regale you with tales of his dullness as a lecturer. In fact, it is almost comical to measure Dewey against some of his followers' standards for college teaching, such as: a magnetic, outgoing personality; evident enthusiasm for his subject; a master of his craft; a clear speaking voice; a fluent command of English; the ability to hold the attention, arouse the interest and enlist the active participation of the student.

In the classroom, Dewey seemed to possess almost none of these pedagogical essentials. There were none of the recommended "lecture techniques" or histrionic devices of education courses, to say nothing of today's "battery of visual aids to instruction." His appearance was farmer-like, weather-beaten, and utterly unpretentious. Some of his women students said that they found it hard, occasionally, to repress a desire to straighten up his neckties.

He remained seated throughout the hour and seldom seemed to be looking directly at his audience. Often he would turn in his chair and glance sideways, as if halflooking out the window and halfabsorbed in his private thoughts. His facial expression was solemn, though it lighted up at times with something like a chuckle, and occasionally his hand would ruffle his shock of hair or tug at his moustache. Questions from the floor were not exactly discouraged, but they were not invited.

All these characteristics counted heavily against John Dewey on the public lecture platform. There is, of course, the familiar story of his lecture on "Interest in Education" which put many of his hearers to sleep. And when I came to Union College in 1925, I found that Dewey's appearance there in 1914 as the deliverer of a course of eight lectures on the Ichabod Spencer Foundation had become a campus legend. In the words of the late Professor John L. March, Dewey's general topic, "The Psychology of Social Behavior," seemed "strangely enough, to have little popular The result was that, appeal." although "the lectures were brilliant, and the most able yet given," the audience never filled the college chapel, and at the concluding lecture it had dwindled almost to the vanishing point. Professor March added the inspired understatement: "Professor Dewey is a quiet talker."

HIS STYLE WAS FLAT

In addition, the style of Dewey's oral as well as written statements was notoriously flat and involved, "lumbering and bumbling" in Edman's words. It provoked Justice Holmes to the famous comment, "So, methought, God would

have spoken had He been inarticulate but keenly desirous to tell you how it was." According to the late Professor Edward G. Spaulding of Princeton, Dewey's style once moved William James, in conversation, to the point of profanity; he called it "damnable" and added, "You might even say Goddamnable!"

In 1942, Max Eastman declared that Dewey had "published 36 books and 815 articles and pamphlets—a pile twelve feet, seven inches high—but if he ever wrote one 'quotable' sentence it has got permanently lost in the pile." None of the standard books of quotations—Bartlett, Stevenson, Mencken—contains a single Dewey entry. Yet, in personal conversation and sometimes in the classroom, the Vermont Yankee's native wit and shrewdness became evident.

How, then, was it possible for Dewey the teacher to be so preeminently and abidingly influential? What was the source and secret of his extraordinary power to stir his students to the remaking of their minds? Perhaps the late Ralph Barton Perry came close to blurting out one-half of the answer at the celebration of Dewey's 90th birthday when he said, "He does not feel obliged to live up to his reputation, to be impressive, witty, eloquent, or even interesting; he simply says what he thinks."

But what and how did he think? His students came to recognize that an hour listening to Dewey was an exercise in "man thinking." They saw a well-stocked and original mind, remarkably free from any sort of bias or prejudice, engaged in the patient and honest exploration of "whole situations" in experience with the aid of penetrating distinctions and a full-fledged "theory of inquiry."

In the classroom, the student's experience went something like this: The hour opened with a halfrevealed abstract pronouncement, an apparent platitude, seldom affording any great air of mystery or suspense. Then would follow a painstaking development of the idea, during which the student was sometimes lulled almost to slumber by the lecturer's snail-like deliberation in getting to the point. But, just as the end of the hour was in sight, Professor Dewey would unfold some hitherto-concealed and unexpected practical consequence of his train of thought. Whereupon the student, now completely awake, would curse himself for his inattention and resolve that the next time he surely would hang on every word. One rarely left the classroom without the conviction that something intellectually and practically important had been said, no matter how uncertain one about the precise steps in the argu-

Such classroom experience might have been expected to produce fragmentary results. But the thoughtful student learned from Dewey an overwhelming respect for the truly inquiring mind and its rigorous, relentless following of

a logical argument wherever it might lead. Santayana once remarked that "the great difficulty in education is to get experience out of ideas." Dewey as teacher had conquered that difficulty. To his students he was primarily a demonstrator of method, of the power of abstract theory when harnessed to the mastery of complex, concrete situations. Far from being hasty, or sketchy, or undisciplined in his thinking, Dewey's forte was the setting of an example of the rarest sort of disciplined mind-the kind which can cope with a changing world.

The respect of Dewey's students for his words flowed from two convictions about their nature. first was that he had a firm grasp on the abstractions involved in the idea presented and in their logical implications. The second was that he was thinking to some purpose and some ultimate test in practice. Those who learned the most from Dewey as teacher have not been those who have begun with his particular conclusions and turned them into esoteric jargon or popular slogans. They are, rather, those who have attempted to follow his example in their own individual fashions.

That has involved the avoidance of what Whitehead called "inertideas" in favor of the dynamic variety and the continuous facing of the unsolved problems in all their bewildering complexity. It has also called for the renunciation of any expectation of easy or permanent

solutions. A humanity that is fully alive never will run out of the need for fresh, hard, comprehensive thinking. As Dewey himself once said, "The most Utopian thing about Utopia is that in it there are no schools." Hence, our distance from Utopia always can be used as the measure of our need for schooling.

As the figure of John Dewey the teacher commences its second 100 years of impact on a sluggish humanity, forever weary of the hard labor of thinking, there are those who will argue with some cogency that many of his thoughts in the heyday of liberalism, before it degenerated into its present uneasy complacency, are much too sanguine for us to entertain. That verdict would not have disturbed Dewey. He wanted all to think for ourselves, for our time, and for the future.

There could be no greater folly than to dismiss him as a quaint exemplar of outmoded Yankee virtues or a typical nineteenth-century museum piece. For, although he was not unmindful of his predecessors, Dewey's whole orientation was toward the future. As between him and his detractors, the future will decide, and no former student of his will have any doubts about the outcome.

As Irwin Edman has said, "The race is still between intelligence and catastrophe. His was a voice for reasonableness and for imagination. He will be listened to again and long."

Motivation-The Key to Good Teaching

LELAND S. MARCH

In The Clearing House

OULD you shovel sand all day at top speed, then work just as hard the next day filling the hole, just because you were told to? On the other hand, if your loved ones were caught in a collapsed tunnel, wouldn't you make the dirt fly as long as you had strength to swing the shovel? In the first situation you would stop shoveling at the first opportunity. In the second instance, love would provide the motivation, the incentive which would drive you in an all-out effort.

Most people would consider an individual half-witted who would pour out a maximum effort time after time on command without having a reasonable purpose behind the effort. Yet, as teachers, we call on students to pour out their best effort for 180 days at our command. Many students see no more sense in what they are asked to do than you would in digging a hole, then filling it in again. It is true that the typical student is sufficiently obedient-at your command-to shovel enough sand to avoid punishment by a failing mark or a warning slip to his parents, but beyond that he drops the academic shovel when he thinks he has done enough to keep you off his neck.

Teachers know what motivation is. They can define it as "some-

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thing which provides an incentive, inducement, or motive." And they know that "motive" may be defined as "something causing motion." Now isn't it time we took some "smart pills" and began using in our classes one of the most powerful psychological laws affecting the human race—the law of motivation?

Let us consider a few of the levers which will turn on the drive in healthy normal students. There is no one motivating technique which will work on every student. As the best mechanic has a number of wrenches to fit various sized nuts, the best teachers will have a battery of motivating devices to adapt to the individual differences found in the normal class. To get best results, "the wrench must fit the nut."

1. Curiosity: Take advantage of this common trait in human nature. Do not feed the class information and make intellectual cripples of them. Arouse their interest, and then make them dig out the answers themselves, even if they fail a test or two

- 2. Selfimprovement: Some people like to be well read, up to date, and well informed. This is a mature urge, but some of our high-school students are mature. Stress the parts of your subject which will give cultural background and an informed mind to those who do well in class. Point out the embarrassment of appearing ignorant, stupid, or backward before those we respect. In some, this is strong motivation.
- 3. Profit: The almighty dollar is the high-octane gas which drives some individuals to prodigious achievement. Point out the way in which your subject can add to the earning power of many individuals. A good command of the spoken and written means of communication can lift anyone several rounds higher on the ladder of success.
- 4. Competition: To some people, competition is the breath of life. In any normal group of students, you will find a considerable number who enjoy testing their ability to do a number of things. Take advantage of this by challenging the top group of the class to competitive tests in your subject. If you use a system in which each student in the class has a number, you can post the results on the bulletin giving board without embarrassment to anyone. For all those of above-average ability, com-Petition is a powerful incentive.

5. Idol Worship: It is natural for teen-agers to look up to someone. If you are working to moti-

vate a particular student, find out who or what he admires. Even if you discover Johnny idolizes some undesirable gangster or thug, you have uncovered a facet of the boy's character which may explain why he is a misfit in school. If your student's idol is worthwhile, you have a potent lever by which to raise his level of work.

LOW MARK MOTIVATION

6. Fear of a Low Mark: Whether we like it or not, research has shown that "fear of a low mark" is one of the most powerful motivating forces driving high-school students to study and do well. Coupled with that is the accompanying fear of parental reaction, hazarding admission to the college of their choice, and other adverse end results. The low mark need not be waved over their heads like a bludgeon, but a private reminder to many students that they are doing unsatisfactory work is they need to be motivated for greater effort.

Every student should know after each mark is received just what his average is and what grade would go on the report card if marks were closed right then. Every baseball star knows what his batting average is from day to day. Teach your students to "average their marks," and see that they do it regularly.

It pays to have a few extracredit projects up your sleeve by which an ambitious student can earn a better mark. Providing it is worthwhile, such a project teaches him valuable facts, and enriches the class.

7. Winning the Teacher's Approval: While typical high-school students do not weep at every frown of the teacher, they value honest praise more than most teachers realize. Some horses run faster for the rider who encourages them and buck off the rider who uses a quirt or spurs. People are just the same. If your students respect you, they value your approval. The successful coaches of America have sometimes been credited with being some of our best teachers of young men, and rightly so. Above all things, they treat their players as individuals. They use the method which works best for each man. Classroom teachers can do the same.

Now let us put all this into practice. First, look over your classes and pick out the students who need motivation, and then start working on them. Remember, you have a group of individuals in front of you, not a batch of cookies all cut out of the same dough with the same cutter. Most of them are as smart as the teacher. Many are smarter. All have had a richer background from which to develop than the present generation of teachers, as they have grown up with airplanes, electricity, radio and TV, automobiles of their own, and jet propulsion and rockets as commonplace facts of life. Also, the child psychology of their generation has stressed selfdevelopment and independence of thought, whereas many teachers were raised to believe "Father knows best."

Today's teen-ager questions whether "Father" knows anything, alone best. However, teacher has one card which is always the ace of trumps in this game-he has been through the mill, he has had his baptism of fire. In other words, the teacher has greater experience in life, in the particular subject, and in being a student. From that store of accumulated experience, the teacher can lead the class into worthwhile situations in which each learns according to his ability and willingness. I use the term "lead", advisedly. You don't "drive" today's teen-agers successfully.

Write down the motivating techniques you think you could use successfully. Build up your own battery. The ones listed here are only suggestions which have been good in certain circumstances After you have your battery of motivating techniques, apply them to the students who need motivar tion. A good doctor changes his prescription if the first one fails. Do the same. Above all, remember that the student's success is your success. Therefore, produce much student success as possible. Every time you are able to open some student's eyes to the glory and splendor of achievement gained by his own initiative and effort, you have made a man of a boy, a free American citizen instead of a school child.

Are Human Events Being Overlooked?

Human Aspirations Are Changing Our World

LEONARD S. KENWORTHY
In Childhood Education

given these days to spectacular scientific changes that human events of at least as much importance tend to be minimized or overlooked. In the perspective of history, however, it may well be that the significance of the creation of the United Nations and the Bandung Conference in Indonesia in 1955 will surpass the significance of the launching of Sputnik and the voyage of the Nautilus under the North Pole.

As citizens and as teachers we need to be informed on both of these major types of change. But because the major channels of communication stress the more dramatic scientific events, our greatest contribution may be to understand and to interpret to adults and children dren the human revolutions which are taking place today. Since most agencies of communciation report isolated events, we need to see these day-to-day happenings as Parts of great contemporary movements or revolutions which are changing our lives and the lives of our children and their parents.

It would be fine to mention these changes positively; but at this juncture it is easier to state them negatively, for the people of the world are clear on what they condemn, less clear on what they champion. Here, then, briefly stated, are eight of the major revolutions of our times:

 People are in revolt against colonialism. For many decades the white people of western so-called Christian nations have dominated the world politically, exploiting the resources of colonial possessions, discriminating against the people of color in Asia, the Middle East, and Africa, and, with the exception of a few privileged persons, depriving them of even a basic education. For a long time this domination was accepted as inevitable. But eventually people learned that they did not need to be subser-

Leonard S. Kenworthy is Professor of Education at Brooklyn College, New York. Reported from Child-hood Education, XXXVI (October 1959), 55-57. Condensed by permission of the Association for Child-hood Education International, 1200 hood Education International, 5, D.C.

vient. As a result 24 new nations, comprising nearly a quarter of the world's population, have been formed since World War II, and many more new nations are on their way to independence.

2. People are in revolt against discrimination. For centuries most people accepted their lot blindly, unmindful of the fact that they, too, could be "equal." But today the idea of equality has reached the most isolated parts of the world. People everywhere are rebelling against discrimination whether they are untouchables of India, women of the Middle East, or the colored peoples of Africa and the United States. No matter who they are or where they live, people today want to be treated as human beings. They want respect-irrespective of race, nationality, class, color, or creed.

3. People are in revolt against feudalism. To most Americans the word "feudalism" is an archaic term associated with the Middle Ages. But to large numbers of people it describes the miserable conditions under which they still live, with present-day feudal owners controlling their lives and keeping them in continual poverty. The battle against feudalism is far from over, but attacks have been made on feudal control in such far-flung spots as Turkey, Japan, and Paraguay. And this revolution continues on a world-wide front.

 People are in revolt against low standards of living. To people living in comfort and even luxury,

it is almost impossible to imagine how most of the world lives. In per capita income, we in the United States have around \$2200 per year. Meanwhile, two-thirds of the world's people exist on \$100 or less per year. In human terms that means that three out of four babies die at birth or within their first year. It means that people go to bed hungry nearly every night of their lives. It means a lack of sanitation facilities which is almost unbelievable—until one has smelled and seen the results. Today, however, there is a revolt against such conditions and it is a global revolution.

ILLITERACY REVOLT

5. People are in revolt against ignorance and illiteracy. In times past it was not necessary to be literate. Today, however, the skills of literacy are absolute necessities in almost all parts of the world. Yet approximately 60 percent of the people on our globe cannot read or write. Today, however, there is a hunger for education everywhere. Governments are un able to build schools fast enough or find and educate enough teach ers to supply this demand. Even in a country like Ethiopia, which de votes one-third of its national bud get to education, the demands are far greater than can be met. The people of the world want to be educated and they are demanding educational opportunity.

6. People are in revolt against established forms of economic and

political organization. In many parts of the world today political control is still in the hands of a few persons, whether they be kings, dictators, or autocratic rulers. But the days of such rulers are numbered—the idea of control by the people for the welfare of the people has caught fire around the world.

7. People are in revolt against established value systems. All over the world today people are becoming critical of older ways of living and established sets of values. The hold of the family, the tribe, the local community, or the church is being loosened-and nothing comparable has taken its place. Old standards have been discarded; new standards have not as yet developed. Some of the more unfortunate results are apparent in increased juvenile delinquency, illegitimate births, and crimes.

8. People are in revolt against war. Many of us in the United States have felt the effect of war, but not in the way that the people

of many others parts of the world have experienced it. Almost every reporter who has been to Russia comments on the eagerness of the common people to record their hatred of war and their fear of another conflict. In Japan and Germany there are strong pacifist movements. People fear war. Often their feeling is a negative one, without much thought as to what can be done positively to prevent global suicide. But it is a revolution and it needs to be noted.

To understand and to interpret to others these world-wide revolutions of our day is an enormous job, but an exciting one. Whatever we can do to help children to like themselves so that they can like their three billion neighbors is a contribution. Leon Saul of the University of Pennsylvania pointed out recently, "To achieve peace and brotherhood on any secure, permanent, natural human basis, children must be properly reared, especially during their most formative years, from conception to five, six, or seven."

- Life demands a great deal of sameness of all those who participate in living. But human differences are as precious as human conformity. Personality is the highest attribute of human life, and personality depends in major part on differences. But personality goes deeper than merely an outward show of differences. It is the mysterious spirit which ward show of differences into inspired differences.—From Peabody Journal of Education.
- Take an interest in the future. That's where you will spend the rest of your life.—From Idaho Vo-Ed News.

Effect of Coaching on an Aptitude Test

JOHN W. FRENCH and ROBERT E. DEAR In Educational and Psychological Measurement

VERY year many secondaryschool seniors take the College
Board's Scholastic Aptitude Test
(SAT) to prove that they are
bright enough to enter college. The
applicants and the schools know
that many colleges weigh the
scores heavily in making up their
minds whether to admit or not to
admit. The consequent pressure to
do well on the test has led a few
schools to resort to various kinds
of "coaching" to help their students get high scores.

Much has been written recently in England on the coaching problem in connection with the "11-year tests." Writers, reporting in the British Journal of Educational Psychology, have seemed to agree that coaching does produce a rise in test scores, but they differ in their interpretations of the importance of this effect.

The American literature on coaching is not recent, and most of the studies made have concentrated on elementary-school children. For example, a study by Esther DeWeerdt some years ago found a differential effect of coaching on subtests of the Illinois Intelligence Examination. Analogies, sentence vocabulary, and synonym-antonyms seemed coachable, while arithmetic problems, substitution, verbal ingenuity, and

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arithmetic ingenuity were not Coaching was shown to be somewhat effective for a few weeks of months, but not for as long as two or three years. Coaching with older students studied by several interested in this subject noted that coaching had raised scores on the Otis, the Army Alpha, the troit Intelligence Test, and the Thorndike Intelligence Examination. However, a clear impression of the size of the coaching effect has been precluded by a confusion of study procedures and units of measurement.

For the purpose of answering the coaching question for its Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT), consisting of a verbal section (SAT-V) and a mathematical section (SAT-M), the College Board recently undertook a series of studies: a group-coaching study in private schools, which was reported by H. S. Dyer in The College Board Review in February 1953; a group-coaching study in public schools,

as reported by J. W. French in The College Board Review, Fall 1955, and in the Educational Testing Service's Research Bulletin, December 1955. A study of coaching on items identical to those in the test also was reported by French in the bulletin referred to above. A report on intensive individual coaching was reported by R. E. Dear in the Educational Testing Service's Research Bulletin, April 1958.

For the private school study, two similar college preparatory schools for boys participated and some 468 senior students took past forms of the SAT in September and again in March. Between September and March one school provided special coaching classes and the other school did not. There were several ways in which these schools and these students differed from college-preparatory seniors in public schools. It was for this reason that a study was made in three Public schools. Students, both boys and girls, took a past SAT in September and a regular one in March, in a design similar to that of the earlier study. The study of coaching on identical items also was made in these public schools. But the study of intensive, individual coaching for seniors was made in 10 public high schools and private preparatory schools in the East.

In summary it may be said that:

A series of studies now has been carried out by the College Entrance Examination Board in each of which students coached for the SAT were compared by analysis

of covariance methods with students who received no special training for the test. Forms of the SAT given prior to coaching were used to control differences in ability. Differences in the amount of gain from first test to final test, which could not be accounted for by differences in initial ability, were attributed to practice on special timed tests and exercises containing items similar to those on the SAT. In a study comparing private schools, another comparing three public schools, third comparing individuallycoached groups at 10 schools with uncoached control groups, significant differences were always found, but these amounted at most to 20 points on SAT-V and 30 points on SAT-M, on the scale which extends from 200 to 800. These differences are less than the standard errors of the tests. A side study showed that even when items identical to those on the test were imbedded in the practice exercises, no substantial gain is likely to occur on the final test unless a large percentage of the items could be predicted. What is known about commercial coaching schools suggests that coaching by them would be less effective than that done in connection with these studies.

The conclusion seems to be that an eager College Board candidate should not spend money on special coaching for the SAT. He would probably gain at least as much by some review of mathematics on his own and by reading a few books. •

Are We Throwing the Baby Out with the Bath?

The Wonderful One-Hoss Cliche

KENNETH E. McIntyre

In Phi Delta Kappan

HE term "one-hoss" as used in the title applies, as is the case with "one-hoss towns," to small, unobtrusive clichés. Two-hoss clichés, not treated in this article, longer and more complex and require the touch of an expert. I have, however, made a study of the one-hoss cliché-that stand-by of all discussion groups. Herewith are presented several.

I. "You can lead a horse to water, but you can't make him drink,"

This homely aphorism has comforted teachers down through the ages. The assumption seems to be that they have good, cool, clear streams of knowledge to dispense, and it isn't their fault if the young charges don't take a swig now and

2. "Instead of 20 years of experience, she has had one year of experience 20 times."

Here is a cliché with more experience than its inflexible subject ever had. It should be retired with

3. "The tail is wagging the dog." This dependable old perennial is a favorite of (a) band directors who deplore the current overemphasis on football, (b) football coaches who deplore the current overemphasis on band, (c) the other members of the faculty, who

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deplore the overemphasis on band and football, and (d) members of the taxpayers' league, who deplore everything.

4. "Don't throw out the baby

with the bath."

Nobody ever questions the value of babies, so this cliché has been called on to justify almost everything that has ever been done under school sponsorship. baby, of course, is the speaker's pet subject, activity, or project, and the bath is the admittedly nonessential goings-on down the hall-

5. "It happened during my first years of teaching-more years ago

than I care to mention."

This venerable bit of tomfoolery always brings an uneasy chuckle from those of us who are closer to our dotage than to our nonage, but hate to admit that we are. I first heard this one more years ago than I care to mention.

6. "That's the \$64,000 question,"

Fortunately the epidemic of tele vision quiz shows now has died out. Otherwise this hackneyed bit of idiocy, which started with "The \$64 Question," might have grown to even more nauseating proportions. We professors, however, will be lost without an accepted way of dodging questions that we cannot answer.

7. "Snoopervisors."

This term not only provides a label of contempt for a type of instructional supervisor, but also evokes a laugh from subordinates and all others who have not heard it before (largely, children under four years of age). A recent study of 137 people who used the term snoopervisors in discussion groups revealed that they tend to be the same people who say amusing things in personal letters and identify them with the interjection, Hal

8. "You can't teach an old dog new tricks."

The old dogs among us who are repelled by the thought of learning new tricks frequently invoke the tenuous support of this hoary bromide. In so doing, we help to prove our case by making one thing apparent: it is indeed difficult to teach new modes of expression to some old tale bearers.

9. "Anything can happen in (you name the place)—and usually does."

Noah said something like this to his wife after the 39th day of rain. She didn't laugh because she had heard it before.

10. "I'm just pinch-hitting for Mr. Paunchly."

There seem to be more pinchhitters on speakers' rostrums than there are on baseball diamonds. In baseball, however, a pinch-hitter is usually sent into the game deliberately to improve the team's chances of winning. The pinch-talker, on the other hand, owes his hour on the stage to some fortuitous circumstance that prevented the scheduled speaker from appearing. He isn't as likely to make a "hit" as the speaker he replaced, particularly if he refers to himself as a pinch-hitter.

There are many other clichés, but these should be sufficient to convince us that we have a problem. Now, what can be done about it? My studies have led me to the conclusion that the answer lies in one of the three following courses of action:

1. Try the educational approach. Offer a new course, such as Ed. 601 (same as Speech 601), entitled, "Effective Uses of Clichés in Discussion Groups." If this course fails to achieve its objectives, Speech 602 (Same as Ed. 602) could be developed and entitled, "Avoiding Clichés in Discussion Groups."

2. If the educational approach fails, try the punitive approach. Record certain clichés on tape for use in prisons as a form of punishment. The electric chair, gas chamber, and hangman's noose have failed, so why not try torture?

3. If education and punishment both fail, levy a use tax on clichés and increase teachers' salaries with the receipts. If you can't lick 'em, join 'em. Ha!

Grammar in Language Teaching

JOHN J. DEBOER

In Elementary English

N medieval times, grammar was one of the three "inferior studies" of the Seven Liberal Arts. Even in those days, mathematics and astronomy enjoyed a high priority in the academic hierarchy. In this respect the times have not changed a great deal—the humanities are still among the "inferior" studies in comparison with the space age sciences. Rockets and missiles have a grammar of their own.

Earthbound teachers of English, however, must still concern themselves with questions about the teaching of grammar. How much grammar should be taught? To whom should it be taught? At what stage in the learning process and by what methods should it be taught? But the most important question of all continues to be this one: Does the study of grammar improve speaking and writing ability? And if grammar is of little use in the improvement of language skills, as many investigations conducted over many years seem to indicate, should it be taught at all?

A close examination of some of the reports of investigations of the effectiveness of grammar instruction might reveal flaws in research design or conclusions not fully warranted by the evidence. The impressive fact is, however, that in John J. DeBoer is Professor of Education at the University of Illinois and editor of Elementary English. Reported from Elementary English, XXXVI (October 1959), 413-20.

all these studies, carried out in places far removed from each other, often by highly experienced and disinterested investigators, the results have been consistently negative so far as the value of grammar in the improvement of language expression is concerned. Surely there is no justification in the available evidence for the great expenditure of time and effort still being devoted to formal grammar in American schools.

It is important, however, to point out that the grammar with which such studies have been concerned was traditional, conventional, formal, systematic, prescriptive, normative grammar. Moreover, during the period in which these studies were undertaken, particularly in the last three decades, there have been three major developments with respect to the recommended content of the grammar to be taught in school.

The first of these developments was the restriction of grammar content to functional items. Thus, for example, the distinction between

a gerund and a present participle is important in grammatical theory, but of very little use in the teaching of speaking and writing. Efforts have, accordingly, been made to discover the specific items of grammar and usage which give trouble in children's language expression. Error counts were used for the purpose of determining what elements in grammar may be considered "functional." Typical of such studies were those made by W. W. Charters and Edith Miller, L. J. O'Rourke, and M. J. Stormzand and M. V. O'Shea. The lastnamed contributed a valuable device called the "error quotient," the ratio of the total number of errors on a specific item to the number of opportunities for making the error. On the basis of such studies, various writers have made recommendations as to points of emphasis in usage at the successive grade levels.

For the elementary-school teacher, the significant generalization to be drawn from these lists is that grammar and usage below the seventh grade should be taught informally and the items stressed should be those most encountered in children's speech and writing. Textbooks treating language in the elementary school stress this point. For example, Alvina T. Burrows, author of Teaching Children in the Middle Grades, declares, "Nor is recourse to teaching 'grammar' any less wasteful. For, in the first place, real grammar cannot be taught to children in the elementary school. A few may learn to indentify nouns, verbs, and even the other parts of speech largely by repetitive examples. But this is a far cry from understanding and applying the science of language relationships."

DESCRIPTIVE STANDARDS

The second development has been the substitution of descriptive for prescriptive standards for determining what is "right" and "wrong" in grammar and usage. The notion that prevailing language practice rather than a priori principles of language forms and relationships determines correctness has slowly but steadily influenced the writers of school textbooks. Indeed, a very few of the newer textbooks are based entirely on the descriptive approach. The National Council of Teachers of English has been especially helpful in making available the findings of modern language research. Among its publications in this field are the studies by J. Paul Leonard, Albert H. Marckwardt and Fred C. Walcott, Arthur G. Kennedy, Robert C. Pooley, and Charles C. Fries.

The descriptive approach encourages teachers to accept the English language as it is rather than fight a losing battle in behalf of forms and constructions which may have had academic sanction but are not characteristic of contemporary speech or writing. Thus it recognizes the fact that word inflection has sharply declined in English, while variations in mean-

ing are increasingly expressed by means of word order and function words. Arbitrary rules such as those against splitting an infinitive or ending a sentence with a preposition are giving way to more accurate descriptions of current language standards.

The descriptive approach to grammar and usage does not imply deterioration of standards of "good" English. It implies rather the substitution of fact for fiction in the determination of what "good" English really is. Learning the facts about the real language is fully as rigorous a process as diagramming sentences. It calls for wide reading, perceptive listening, and fine discrimination with respect to the social situation in which language is used. "Substandard" English is no more acceptable in English classes following the descriptive approach than in those dominated by the traditional grammar. And by concentrating on those items which are by general agreement illiterate usages, the teacher of descriptive grammar is more likely to be successful in promoting mastery of standard English.

STRUCTURAL GRAMMAR

The third development has been the emergence of what is known as "structural" grammar. In his American English Grammar, Fries had emphasized the importance of word order in modern English as a device for expressing meanings. Later in his Structure of English,

he developed this concept by examining in greater detail the characteristic patterns of the English sentence, and the "word classes" that make up the parts of these patterns. Other linguists-notably Harold Whitehall, Henry Lee Smith, Jr., George L. Trager, A. A. Hill, D. Lloyd, H. Warfel, and Paul Roberts-have followed pioneering studies of the basic forms and patterns of speech. Structural linguists are primarily concerned with formal clues and signals rather than with "lexical" meanings. They hold that the new approach will avoid what they regard as confusions and contradictions in the old grammar. One writer-Sumner Ives-even hints that the new grammar would be more effective than the old in improving composition: "Arguments based on current experience are irrelevant, for the grammar has not been English grammar."

That structural linguistics represents a new, fresh, exciting, even revolutionary phase in the study of the English language cannot be denied. It is clear, also, that the movement is spreading rapidly. A recent study by William R. Slothower reveals that fully one-fourth of college language classes for prospective teachers of English are based on the new developments in structural grammar. Whether the new approach will provide a solution to the problem of teaching standard English is, however, quite another question.

The rapid growth of structural

grammar in the teacher-education curriculums give some ground for believing that many elementary and secondary schools may soon follow. There is room for debate whether the time is ripe for the introduction of the "new grammar" into the common school classroom, except for optional study by superior pupils in advanced high-school classes. The foundations of what must be regarded as an essentially new science are only now being laid. Terminology as used by different writers is not yet uniform, although efforts are being made to overcome this difficulty. Quite possibly the elementary and the high schools, which for the most part have not yet caught up with the usage principle, can afford to wait until the experts and the popularizers have had opportunity to offer a system and a method which the classroom teacher and the textbook Writers can manage.

As to whether the new grammar will be more effective than the old in raising the level of literate expression, evidence is as yet necessarily lacking. Marckwardt, for one, is skeptical: "Nevertheless, as

long as we continue to educate an ever-increasing proportion of our youth, we shall be dealing with students who come from homes where standard English is not habitually spoken. With them, part of our responsibility amounts to teaching them to substitute a particular prestige dialect of English for that which they normally employ, for Standard English is currently a social dialect and historically a regional one . . . Among other things, we must recognize that language changed only habits can be through constant drill, and that the number of new habitual responses which can be firmly established within a given period is very small indeed."

For the teaching of English idiom and the standard use of the remaining inflections in the language, neither the old nor the new grammar is likely to be a very efficient tool. For the most part grammar must remain an area of study valuable for its own sake to those who can understand its intricacies. For such fortunate ones, it can be a fascinating realm of thought and discovery.

- Asked to rewrite, "Your favor of the twentieth to hand," one pupil handed in the following: "What is the favor of the twenty in your hand."—From High Points.
- In these days when droves of students are going abroad on exchange scholarships, one superintendent reported he received the following letter: "I am interested in one of these here full bright scholarships and I wonder if you can tell me if I can't get a full bright one, can I get a half bright one?"—From North Carolina Education.

What, Who, and How of Modern Mathematics

Sets,
Sinners,
and Salvation

ALBERT E. MEDER, JR.

In The Mathematics Teacher

HIS alliterative title is, I hope, somewhat provocative. Each of its words is clearly a symbol.

"Sets" is intended as a symbol for modern mathematics, for curriculums that have been revised and modernized, for programs that in some way differ from the traditional algebra, trigonometry, plane and solid geometry that have constituted the curriculum for so long. I use this word because somehow or other it has become synonymous in the minds of many teachers with the modern mathematics program.

I wish to emphasize the fact that a program without sets can be modern; a program with sets can be antiquated. However, we should note that the voices that have been

crying in the wilderness for the past three or four years, and particularly the beeps that have been coming from outer space in the last year or so telling us that something has to be done about mathematics teaching have not all been crying, "Sets!" They have demanded more mathematics for more pupils: in cases, traditional more mathematics for pupils for whom it is demonstrably inappropriate; in some cases more difficult mathematics, just because it is difficult. They have confused ability to compute with mathematical understanding. In short, there has been a babel of confused voices demanding that something, almost any thing, be done. The shibboleth of "sets" is a welcome relief.

Now to our second symbolic word: "sinners." Who are the sinners? Need we ask? We are, of course, we teachers of mathematics. Surely we recognize that! We have heard it said often enough. If we teach traditional mathematics, we are out of date. If we teach modern mathematics—whatever that is—we run the risk that colleges will not accept it (or so we are told). If we teach manipulative skills, we are teaching something meaningless. If we try to develop understanding, we are told our pupils cannot com-

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bine fractions. If a pupil likes mathematics, we are probably too easy on him; if he doesn't, we are making the subject too hard.

Most critics of the schools and of the mathematics curriculum and of mathematics instruction are agreed that we are the sinners. They may indict us for different sins—even contradictory sins—but they indict us just the same. "Sinners," then, symbolizes us teachers.

FINDING SALVATION

"Salvation," obviously, is the way out. What is it, and how do we find it? Must the sinners use sets to find salvation. Well, yes, I do think they must, but in the symbolic sense in which I have used the words. Specifically, I do not think that we can find the way out of our difficulties without revising our high-school mathematics program. In the sense that the word sets" symbolizes modernization in spirit and content of outmoded curriculum and unproductive methods, sinners must use sets to find salvation.

But in another sense this statement is completely false. Obviously, in the face of the clamor to do something, the introduction of a unit on sets somewhere in the course, preferably in the ninth grade, provides a tempting answer. If such a unit is put into the course, the teacher can say to principal, superintendents, and school board: "We are up to date; these criticisms do not touch us; we teach sets!"

Now, clearly, this is no real way out. Yet do not dismiss this possibility lightly, or feel that this contingency cannot befall you. It is a very real temptation; it is subtle; it is, like most temptations, a superficial substitute for the real thing. It requires little or no labor. It is actually and literally the most serious danger facing the program of curricular revision in our schools today.

Most teachers of mathematics have been convinced that the proponents of curricular revision have made a case; something should be done. The general public tends to believe, largely without understanding why, that something needs to be done about the mathematics program. To do something really worthwhile is timeconsuming, laborious, and difficult. Therefore, let us "teach sets." This stills the clamor that something be done; it shows that we are up to date (for what is more modern than sets?); and it lets us go about our business. I say that this sort of perversion of what the proponents of curricular revision are driving at is the greatest danger the movement has to face.

So I would like to give one other answer to the question: Must sinners use sets to find salvation? And this time my answer is "no." It is perfectly possible to develop a modern curriculum in mathematics orientated to needs of the present and the future without using sets at all. Now clearly I am using the word "sets" not as a symbol, but

literally. If sets, in this literal sense, are to be utilized in instruction, it must be because, through their use, it becomes possible to attain desired ends better than without the language and concepts of sets. In other words, sets are a means and not an end. I myself happen to believe that the language and concepts of sets have a very real contribution to make in this regard; that through this means it is possible to make clear ideas that can be expressed only vaguely and with inherent obscurity and difficulty without the use of the language of sets. Variable and function are examples. But I would be the first to concede not only the right but the obligation of a teacher who did not find this true for him to omit the use of set language in his class-

Now, finally, what is involved in the search for salvation through sets, in the symbolic sense we have defined? I want to mention just four points.

SALVATION THROUGH SETS

First and foremost, there must be a recognition of the fact that it is the spirit of modern mathematics far more than any specific content that is involved in the search for salvation through revision. Meaningful mathematics, mathematics as "the study and classification of all possible patterns," mathematics in which insight is more important than reasoning, must be the goal. Students must no longer think of

mathematics as a collection of tricks. Rather they must understand that by the use of an imaginative analysis of a problem they can hope to "see through it," to understand its real nature and thus work out a solution. The specific subject matter through which this kind of mathematical power can be developed is relatively unimportant. The effort to develop it is of supreme importance. For extended comment on specifics I refer you to the recent Report of the Commission on Mathematics. [See summary in THE EDUCATION DIGEST, Sept. 1959, pp. 22-26.]

Second, there is involved a willingness on the part of teachers to learn more mathematics. It is perfectly clear that the kind of mathematical instruction I am talking about cannot be given by a teacher who is going through the textbook a week or a day ahead of the class. Deep background knowledge is essential. This is why the Commission says in its Report that the problem of teacher education for the new mathematics is essentially one of teaching the teacher more mathematics, not a changed

methodology. Third, there must be a recog-

nition of curricular revision as a long-range problem. What is essen tial is that teachers move in on the modification of the existing curriculum creatively, as their knowledge and skill enables them to do so, and gradually introduce the changes recommended in the port of the Commission on Mathe

matics and those suggested by others, too. Do not try to do everything at once. It is not fair either to your pupils or to you—or, for that matter to those who wrote the Report—to try everything right away before it is fully understood. Only confusion can result. Let us move deliberately, intelligently, gradually, experimentally—but, of course, perceptibly—in introducing new ideas.

Fourth, there is involved a recognition that the publication of the Report of the Commission is the beginning, not the end. I had the privilege of working on this document and I am quite certain that it is an extremely significant publication. But it is only printed words on paper, until you, the teachers of mathematics, translate it into a living reality. The worst thing that could happen to the Report would be to have it fulsomely praised as a significant document, placed on the library shelves, and ignored. What I hope will happen is: first, that you will read it; second, that you will react to it; and third, that you will try its suggestions. Most people will find themselves in agreement on some points in the Report and in disagreement on others. That is all right. But do not stop in your reading until you have read the argument and

the discussion. After that, blow up if you want to. Some people are likely to be disappointed because there are so many options and a great deal of flexibility in the Commission's program. This, however, seems to us both necessary and desirable. It is necessary because there are great differences among schools, teachers, and pupils in American high schools; it is desirable because the Report of the Commission is conceived of as the beginning of an enterprise to be carried on by teachers, not as the pat answer handed down by a body of experts.

Sets, sinners, and salvation. Yes, we sinners will do well to seek salvation through sets—provided we do not succumb to the temptation that sets constitute a cure-all. And, now, since this article has been cast in a kind of homiletic mold, let me end by quoting two scriptural texts that seem to me to sum up what I have been trying to say. I hope no one will think it irreverent or inappropriate for me to use them in this fashion. I do not mean to debase their primary meaning.

First, "... the letter killeth, but the spirit giveth life."

Second, "How shall we escape if we neglect so great salvation . . . ?"

What Does a Set Equal?

A SET of people in the room is equivalent to a set of heads in the same room.—Student boner reported in Metropolitan Detroit Science Review.

Who Is Kidding Whom?

KATHERINE H. SANDEMEYER

In The High School Journal

N dealing with the problem of cheating, we assume that it is wrong or it wouldn't be considered a problem in the first place. As such, it is denounced as tantamount to sin; and yet most of us have cheated at one time or another. The income tax serves as a prime example of this among adults. If the Salvation Army received all the money thus theoretically donated to it, there would be no need for that organization to solicit funds. This is a popular form of deception which can be socially rationalized. The same thing transposed to the academic world becomes heinous.

Schools adopt honor creeds, print them in handbooks, or immortalize them in bronze. The concept of honor is extolled in literature, iterated and reiterated in classrooms. Yet the high-school pupil readily agrees that cheating is widespread, and that it has tacit social acceptance in the classroom.

An attractive eleventh-grade girl talked to me frankly about what might be called an incentive to cheat. "I'm in what is called a superior group in school. We all have good academic records and we all want to get into good colleges. Everyone in the class can't get a top grade, but we are all intelligent and we need those grades for our

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class rank. So we cheat a little. . . . All a college wants is grades, IQ, class standing, and perhaps extra-curricular activities."

Here was a top student of impeccable record and reputation. sell her the idea of integrity might mean a lower grade, and that would mean a lower class rank and a lesser college. College status, and when status and integrity meet, the practical person will modify his integrity. Naturally. This involves one's family pride, one's friends, one's future job, and a great deal of money.

All of this becomes even more realistic for a boy. He will need a good college background socially even more than academically in future years. If cheating will help (discreetly, of course), it should be

used as an expedient.

One boy I talked with is a cleancut, well-spoken young man. is popular with his classmates and active in his church youth group. He spoke patiently, as to an adult who might not understand. most of us cheat-but not all the

time. It depends on the course; it depends on the teacher. What do you expect with all this pressure on grades and getting into college? My old man never went and he is bound and determined that I get into one of the big ones. He's got a point there. So if cheating gets you better marks, why not do what everyone else is doing? You'll need those grades. That's all that counts anyway—that and the way you dress and talk. Be idealistic, but where does it get you?"

This is youth speaking, and the arguments seem rational but are basically false. If we adults have a responsibility here and have not recognized it, perhaps we are only reaping what we have sown.

The boy quoted above spoke of his parent and he spoke of his teacher. These two represent the categories of adults who wield a great deal of influence during the high-school years. Parents are the most important. They set the moral standards. But teachers are important, too. As a group they are sworn foes of cheating and tend to castigate severely the pupil found guilty of wrongdoing. Because of their position of daily authority within the school, they may do much indirectly either to foster or eradicate the practice they deplore.

CHEATING AND MORALE

Deliberate deception, in the academic sense, may stem from morale. Morale in the classroom emanates from the teacher himself. The

pupils are a captive audience. Day in and day out, they listen to what the teacher says and observe what he does. There are times when he loses face in front of the group, makes mistakes, is offered insolence, copes with dishonesty, or is unjustly The young observers in the seats are watchful. They make no move to alleviate the situation for the teacher. They view his humiliation or frustration dispassionately and form their judgments. If this adult handles his emotions as well as his theories, and they like what they see, they respect him.

When the teacher is respected—just as the parent in the family—morale is good, and what he says carries weight. If he has convictions concerning individual integrity, talks sincerely about trustworthiness and then proceeds to evidence that trust in his pupil relationship, he should have comparatively little cheating in his room.

Here is a point to consider. Trust is so important, and false accusation so harmful, that there is little to be lost in accepting an occasional falsehood at face value. The student is apt to react constructively. He knows the truth. So do his friends. He suspects that you may know it, too. But it will become increasingly difficult to choose to do wrong if someone believes in him and will take him It becomes doubly at his word. difficult when the rest of the class is watching and acting as a jury of one's peers.

Cheating is evidence of fear,

and fear can mean a hundred different things. Fear of failure probably comes first, and failure and success are relative terms. Success to one may mean 95, to another it may mean 70. Failure to the first would be 85 and to the second, anything below 70. All this depends on the goal that a pupil has set for himself.

Here is where the teacher becomes a key person. If grades on tests are arbitrary and standards rigid—if one, two, or even three marks are of great importance, the pressure rises. Grades become paramount, with insidious effects on the pupil himself and the critical evaluation of him by his family. Fear, cramming, rigid proctoring, all tend to create a climate conducive to cheating. The mark becomes all important.

INVITING CHEATING

Most common of all, perhaps, is the test that literally invites successful cheating, for it is based on a regurgitation of facts previously commited to memory. Judicious notes based on shrewd observations of the teacher's favorite points of emphasis can be carried in a pocket, and should prove useful in case of temporary amnesia.

On the other hand, a carefully structured examination based on creative thinking, or a synthesis of facts to be garnered in an unexpected way, or choices to be made from a wide variety of similar but not identical relationships, would make it difficult to pass without

real thought and effort. Few examinations can be more exacting than one done with an open book. When nothing is forbidden, there is no need to cheat. In carrying this one step further, does not all education at this level primarily train one to be able to extract and assimilate knowledge from source material rather than from memory? It would be just as shortsighted of us merely to condemn this acceptance of cheating by youth, label it decadent, and punish it severely, as it would be to retreat to our ivory towers with the feeling that this too will pass and by some alchemy these young people of ours will develop into trustworthy adults if we just leave them alone.

Time will not do this job. Time makes people older, not wiser. We, the parents and teachers, will be responsible for much of the wisdom, and we must first look within ourselves. If our own standards have been distorted to meet personal ambition or convenience, we cannot well blame the youngsters for imitating what they see in us.

Practice is more potent than preaching, and most important of all is the personal expenditure of love and energy directed toward helping young people form a working philosophy of life by which they can live with integrity and courage. Cheating is only a symptom. If we care enough to think seriously about the symptom, we may be able to think even more clearly about character, which is the core of the entire person.

The Phonic Word Method

J. C. Daniels and Hunter Diack

In The Reading Teacher

N teaching children to read we are not teaching the meanings of words, but the meanings of letters. To many teachers today this statement may appear heretical, but to us it seems to drive straight to the heart of many reading problems.

The main emphasis in theories of teaching reading, ever since the days of Huey early this century, has been on "thought-getting." The thoughts the pupils were to "get" were conveyed by words, not by letters-though it has frequently been said that the sentence, not the word, is the unit of thought. At the same time, however, it is true that, no matter what theory is accepted about the very first stages of reading instruction, there are very few teachers indeed who do not, at some stage, teach letters and their sounds. So the statement may not in fact be so heretical after all.

It may seem even less heretical when one takes into account the fact no one has ever suggested that the words in reading primers should be words which children do not already understand or cannot pronounce. Usually, great care is taken to ensure that, in books for teaching children to read, familiar words are presented in the simplest possible sentences. To make the

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whole thing easier, these sentences are usually accompanied by pictures—so that the meaning of words the child already knows, in sentences he readily understands, may almost be said to spring up at him from the page. It is argued that we are teaching the child what particular words look like in print, but words look as they do in print because of the letters in them.

If we accept the idea that in teaching reading we shall be at some time involved in teaching the meaning of letters, then two features of an efficient reading scheme would seem to be:

a) The scheme will guide the child towards visual analysis into letters, because letters, not dots or tails on y's or "the two little eyes peeping out of moon," are the meaningful units within words.

b) At all stages the designer of the scheme will bear in mind the fact that one of the two main objectives at this stage of teaching reading is the teaching of letter meanings. The other aim which must be simultaneously borne in mind is that reading is a process of "thought-getting" or reading for meaning.

The scheme of teaching reading which the present authors designed on the basis of these ideas is known as the phonic word method. As so far published, the materials comprise 11 basal books and 20 supplemental books under the title of The Royal Road Readers.

To describe the scheme in detail is not possible within the scope of this article. Some general descriptive points, however, may be useful.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES

The principle of vocabulary selection by difference of word-shape or configuration is rejected since this encourages a mode of wordrecognition which later must be discarded, to the confusion of many.

In addition to the principle that the words must be within the child's normal vocabulary, vocabulary control is on the principle of graded phonic complexity. That is to say, the number of different letter-meanings is rigidly controlled, not only in each of the graded books but also on each page. At the same time, within these limitations, as many words as possible are used. In Book I of these readers the child has to read more than 10 times as many words as in those primers where vocabulary control has been the strict limitation of the number of words used. Yet in

this book the child has far fewer different letter-meanings to contend with than in the other type of primer.

In the phonic word method, great attention is paid throughout to the relationship between visual and aural analysis. Though aural analysis of speech sounds necessarily takes place when a child is learning to speak (no child begins speaking whole words accurately, but works gradually towards the correct pronunciation of the whole through the parts), yet in discovering letter-meanings the child has to relearn the composite sounds of words at a higher, or more conscious, level. Experimental observation has led us to the conclusion that when there is a consistent relationship between the visual symbol and the sound, the two forms of analysis-aural and visual-are complementary; the eye helps the ear to listen and the ear helps the eye to look.

NOT TRADITIONAL METHOD

Though phonically based, this is not the traditional phonic method but a method in its own right for three reasons:

Firstly, in the phonic word method, the child starts with whole words in meaningful picture contexts. These words are chosen to give the pupil the kind of practice in visual discrimination that will be useful to him at all later stages.

Secondly, letter-meanings taught functionally in words so as to avoid the intrusive vowels of the old-fashioned "kuh-a-tuh" for cat. In the reading materials the words are chosen and arranged so as to make it easy for the teacher to avoid this disintegrating sounding of letters.

Thirdly, in these readers the grading is so carefully controlled that on no page is the pupil required to solve a reading "problem" which he has not, on some teaching page, been given the means and techniques for solving. This ensures a continual revision of letter-meanings already learned and continual practice in attack on new words that are still within his scope. At the same time the child is constantly acquiring greater familiarity with many common words which he comes to recognize in the "differentiated whole" manner of the experienced reader-with a consequent increase in fluency.

In England a substantial number of schools have—for about five years—been using the phonic word method and *The Royal Road Readers* as basal material. Most of these report striking improvements in reading standards as a result of adopting the new method. The results of a number of rigorous experiments also has been encouraging.

In the course of our researches in England, it has been necessary for us to keep closely in touch with the work of our American colleagues. Since we advocate phonically-based materials, we feel that some readers may wonder how

we stand in relation to views of Rudolf Flesch, especially since, at the Reading Conference of the University of Chicago in 1956, the impression was given that we had been saying in England what Flesch had said in America—though apparently we had done it somewhat earlier and more mildly.

DIFFERS FROM FLESCH

When the publication of Flesch's book, Why Johnny Can't Read, was announced, we immediately sent for a copy to see how far his views coincided with our own. We found little agreement on fundamentals.

His arguments in favor "phonics" seemed to us grossly over-simplified. It seemed, too, that he had grossly over-simplified the arguments against the old phonic method in order to demolish them. In particular, he ignored something which we feel is of fundamental importance-namely, the nature of visual perception and the inter-relation between it and aural perception. He ignored, too, the full nature of reading. The whole question of getting word-meanings was pushed aside. Motivational and maturational aspects of learning to read were also neglected.

With all this, our general feeling was that this brash book had created an atmosphere in which any statement we might make was liable to misinterpretation. We hope, however, that we have here, although briefly, managed to state our general position regarding the phonic word method.

The Laboratory Approach to Science Education

CLARENCE H. BOECK

In Education

ODAY there is a growing, broader trend in laboratory instruction. It offers a type of laboratory work that is sound from an instructional viewpoint and is equally sound from the standpoints of science and the psychology of learning.

Science teachers today are well aware of the fact that their pupils should be doing science rather than reading about or discussing science. Because, by definition, science involves methods and attitudes as well as content, the doing is the crucial and unique aspect of science teaching. Concrete experiences can be provided in science instruction through the use of the actual materials and methods of science that are available and applicable at the secondary-school level as well as at higher educational levels.

Today's science instructors see laboratory exercises as growing out of other class activities, such as reading assignments and discussions and demonstrations. This instruction is not to be interpreted to be carrying out a series of exercises designed to verify, apply, or illustrate principles and facts stated in the textbooks and references. Rather, the laboratory is used as a place in which to do those things that, it is hoped, will result in the answer to a question and possibly

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lead to a science principle or generalization.

How does this work in practice? A physics class was presented with a number of tuning forks. Each was marked with a frequency of 127 cycles per second, yet each had a different pitch and was of different size. The obvious question was asked, "What is the true frequency of each tuning fork?" A second question followed immediately, "How can we find out?"

The first suggestions offered by the pupils involved such plans as the use of an oscilloscope set at a sweep frequency which allow the presentation of a single wave and a frequency reading from the oscilloscope setting, and the of standardized frequency sound sources and counting beats. These were rejected by the instructor for reasonable excuses, as far as the pupils were concerned, but primarily to force continued think ing. When suggestions were longer forthcoming, the teacher provided a hint by showing the

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class a series of tuning forks with their resonance boxes. It was demonstrated that the sound of any one fork was reinforced by only one of the boxes. The class took up the lead and planned their experimental approach, including the manner of producing a variable resonance box. They hypothesized that there was some relationship between the length of the resonance box and the frequency of vibration. Because they knew pitch was related to frequency and frequency to wave length, the nature of these relationships could then be used to determine the unknown frequencies. The exact plan of the experiment came from the pupils, for there had been no previous reading or discussion concerning the principle of resonance in sound. A data sheet was developed. The independent variable was presented as a set of tuning forks of known frequencies and calculable wave The dependent variable lengths. was the resonance tube length. Area of the tube was held constant.

Armed with plans and materials, the class went to the laboratory directly, performed the experiment, and recorded the data. Each pupil was expected to analyze his data and bring his conclusions back to class. During a subsequent class meeting all the data were pooled and a final conclusion—the wave length of a particular sound is four times the resonance tube length—was developed. Mathematical computation using this generalization provided the answers to the ques-

tion about the unknown tuning fork's frequency of vibrations. During the class discussions, the pupils were concerned about the fact that the ratio of wave length to resonance length was far enough from four to one to indicate that more than experimental error was involved. Among the suggested factors which might be involved was the tube diameter. This was checked out by demonstration and verified later through textbook reading.

DIFFERENCES NOTED

In these experiments, the same kinds of laboratory materials and apparatus are used with the same kinds of manipulative skill, accuracy of measurement, and, in some instances, the same general procedures that the pupils are likely to find in laboratory manuals. There are differences to be noted in todav's experiments, however. The first of these occurs before experimental work begins. The problem is pupil-defined and the plan of attack is suggested by class members. With the teacher raising the questions and planting appropriate hints when thinking slows down, the directions for the exercise are worked out. In the early phases of the science course, this involves the entire class. Later, each individual assumes greater, and ultimately the entire, responsibility for this planning, for determining the kinds of data to be collected and the manner in which they are to be recorded.

There are other differences to be noted in today's laboratory work. The formalized and rigid "twice-aweek" laboratory period is gone. An exercise no longer comes weeks too soon to be understood by the pupil nor too late to contribute its maximum to the production of understanding. When working in the laboratory is the only, or more reasonable, way of obtaining the answer to the question under investigation, the class moves into the laboratory. No longer does the "writing-up" of an experiment consist of filling in blank spaces in sentences which suggest the answers. Time and effort are not expended in making detailed drawings and diagrams of apparatus arrangements, the anatomy of plants or animals, or that which is viewed under the microscope. Research has shown more value to be obtained through using this time for more testing or closer observation.

What does laboratory instruction of this kind contribute to the education of our pupils? Through first-hand contact with science materials, concrete experiences are made available which contribute greatly to the meaningfulness of the scientific words and principles the pupil encounters. The methods used in seeking answers to questions serve

to teach how a scientist operates in his work. The data collected provide practice material for analysis, reorganization, and the drawing of conclusions. Opportunity is given to practice such aspects of scientific behavior as the withholding of judgments until sufficient data are available, generalizing only within the data provided, and showing a willingness to alter opinions and judgments in the light of new evidence.

This type of science laboratory teaching provides an effective means of individualizing instruction. The more able students should be required to accept the planning responsibility for the phases. All pupils will be able to follow the plans and directions Each will that are formulated. provide data for his own use and that of the other members of the class. The requirement of having to draw conclusions will be imposed on all the pupils; but, as with the planning, only the most able will This can be genuinely successful. be said without question. laboratory work of this type provides these opportunities to prospective scientists before they reach the graduate level in college, and only these opportunities make it possible for all pupils science.

PUPIL of A. Burke, Ford High School, Detroit, knows all about experiments. He reports: "The atomic bomb is an example of a nonexperimental science; that is, it is a science you cannot experiment with."

Let's Sell Personal-Use Shorthand

JOSEPH B. CLEARY

In The Journal of Business Education

Much is spoken and written these days about the threat of symbol shorthand being superseded by electronic devices, such as the dictating machines, or by the alphabetic shorthand systems. Another threat just as serious, if not more so, so far as high-school shorthand is concerned, is that shorthand courses may be crowded out of the high-school curriculum by the stress on academic subjects.

It, therefore, seems to me that we, as shorthand teachers, need to do more thinking—and doing—about justifying shorthand for general education purposes and demonstrating its usefulness as a tool subject, not only for vocational reasons but for personal use as well. It is my belief that a very valuable time- and effort-saving tool is being lost to students because we do not promote shorthand for personal use as one of our objectives.

Most likely, shorthand teachers themselves were not taught shorthand with personal use as one of the objectives; and because they do not use it as such, they may not see its value for such purposes and hence do not teach it as such. Some teachers say that stress on personal-use shorthand in a vocational stenography class is wasteful of time that could better be spent on build-

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ing dictation speed. This is a specious argument. We should consider the important concomitant results to be gained from some time devoted to meeting the personaluse objective that should be a part of even a vocational shorthand class -the reinforcement of shorthand learning. Certainly the more shorthand that is written out of class, or in other courses, the more automatic the outlines become and the more practice the students gain in reading their own shorthand notes. These are results which improve both dictation speed and transcription speed and accuracy. dentally, Gregg shorthand solely for personal use was the intention of Dr. Gregg when he first invented the system in 1888 as "The Shorthand for the Million."

It is quite safe to say that students do not use their shorthand for personal convenience for the following reasons: They have not gained the habit of using it for anything but recording verbatim dictation; they have not been

taught to intersperse shorthand with longhand; and they have not been given sufficient practice in the use of shorthand for personal-use purposes in the classroom. All of these drawbacks are essentially the fault of the shorthand teacher!

There are certainly advantages in adapting shorthand for personal use. Obviously, the student using shorthand for notetaking has more time to listen because he spends less time writing, if—and this is a tremendously important if—he is taught to summarize in shorthand rather than to take verbatim notes,

For composing purposes, shorthand has the decided advantage of getting ideas down while they are still "hot." The more automatic the person's shorthand, the less likelihood there is that shorthand writing will interfere with his thinking. But even if only the shortest words were written in shorthand, the person who can do this would still have a distinct advantage over the longhand writer in transfering ideas to paper.

Much has been written about the use of the typewriter for composition in personal-use courses. Shorthand, however, is a superior tool for composition—for the first draft at least—because less time is required to make changes in shorthand notes than is required to x out words on the typewriter or to typewrite between the lines.

TEACHING TECHNIQUES

Here are some teaching techniques and suggestions for helping students to acquire this useful skill.

Shorthand for personal-use notetaking should be a continuing objective from the beginning of the learning of shorthand. Shorthand students from the start should not only be encouraged to use shorthand for personal use but required to do so. Certainly all the small words can be written in shorthand even by first-semester students. If the shorthand teacher is fortunate enough to have his shorthand students for other courses besides shorthand, perhaps a class in secretarial practice or a general business subject, this is an easy matter. For example, if secretarial practice students keep a notebook, why not require that the notebook be written in shorthand-longhand?

SHORTHAND - LONGHAND

By shorthand-longhand I mean the writing of most of the words in shorthand and the unusual or important words in longhand. essential that this procedure be followed. Just as words printed in italics or in different color type stand out on the printed page, so do words written in longhand "pop out" from shorthand notes. necessary that the teacher illustrate, with examples, how important, difficult, or unusual words may effectively become a part of shorthand notes. And how numbered items and use of significant spacing can make the notes even more useful. The teacher should also teach proper note-taking techniquesparticularly as they apply to getting

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the gist of a lecture, rather than recording what is said verbatim.

From the beginning of shorthand training, the teacher should write all assignments on the blackboard in shorthand or in a combined shorthand-longhand.

When the teacher gives oral directions, he should require students to take them in shorthand-longhand. Have the directions read back from the shorthand notes so that the student develops confidence in his ability to read his own notes.

Students may be given practice in recording the words of songs (especially ballads) in shorthand. The personal-use value of shorthand will probably be more readily recognized by high-school students in this instance than in any other. Occasionally bring a popular record to class to play while the students take down the words in shorthand, or else have a student

in the class sing while the rest of the class records the words.

There are many students besides those in business shorthand courses who can learn to make good use of personal-use shorthand. Certainly an effort should be made to gain the interest of academic students also. In order to be a success a course for such students should have objectives which are purely personal, with the emphasis on concise note-taking, copving from print, and the preparation of rough draft compositions in shorthandlonghand. A one-semester course normally should be sufficient to achieve these goals.

We shorthand teachers have a vast market for the sale of shorthand in the personal-use field. Let's not be satisfied with simply vocational objectives; let's put on our gray flannel suits and sell shorthand as a valuable contribution to general education!

Personal-Use Education

Making a teen-age daughter solely responsible for washing the dishes, a psychologist says, is a good way to teach her the responsibilities of life. On the other hand, it's a poor way to get the dishes done.—From *The Educational Courier*.

Said the father to his son, "Eat your dinner." Said the child to his father, "Motivate me."—From Mississippi Educational Advance.

A business school teacher was quizzing her class of stenographers. "What is the first thing you do when your employer buzzes?" she asked. A hand shot up quickly: "You pick up your notebook and pencil and answer that buzzard promptly."—From Wisconsin Journal of Education.

──★ With Education in Washington ★



So Ends a Decade.—As 1959 turned into 1960, U. S. government agencies summed up those events and actions of a decade which altered the course of American education.

The Bureau of the Census noted that school and college enrolments rose 47 percent since 1950. When the Bureau totalled the figures in October, 1950, the computer showed 33,276,00 students in classrooms. By October, 1959, attendance had risen to 44,370,000.

The Commerce Department reported that expenditures for elementary and secondary schools alone had tripled. In 1950, expenditures were \$5 billion; in 1959, \$15 billion. Meanwhile, of course, the gross national product had risen from \$285 billion to an estimated \$500 billion. We spent more for education, could afford more—but did not spend as much as we could afford, Washington leaders insisted.

Throughout the decade, actions by the federal government kept education astir. Early in the 1950's, Congress created the National Science Foundation; enacted federal aid to school districts which groaned under the load of children brought in as a result of federal activity; and broadened social-security benefits to include public and nonpublic educational employes.

After years of effort, educators finally persuaded the Federal Com-

munications Commission to reserve 242 TV channels for exclusive use by schools and colleges. Congress created the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare in 1953.

Then came the biggest educational development of the decade. The U. S. Supreme Court outlawed racial segregation in public schools (1954) and set into motion a long, bitter struggle between federal authorities and southern boards of education. One dramatic event in this struggle was President Eisenhower's decision to send federal troops to Little Rock (1957) to "enforce the authority of the federal courts."

Midpoint in the decade came the White House Conference on Education. Its report came three months later, in March 1956. The significance of this meeting lay in the fact that it had involved thousands of laymen in a discussion of public education's problems. At the end of the decade, educators still could not trace any tangible governmental actions to the White House Conference. Congress had refused to enact substantial federal support to schools before the Conference, and has refused to do so since.

Although broad federal-aid measures were defeated in every session through the decade, Congress didenact the National Defense Education Act of 1958—primarily as a result of Soviet challenges to our education and technology. And there

was the big shock of the decade: discovering that the Soviets have a passion for education, and that it is fed by government policies, action, and money not matched in the United States.

Air Problems Sired.—Educators in Washington are re-establishing their claim that the airwaves must be used for the public interest and for education, rather than solely for profit.

They are doing so before the Federal Communications Commission, the agency with stewardship over radio and TV channels. The occasion is a series of hearings called by the FCC itself after it was stung into action by scandals in TV and radio industries.

The FCC inquiry began December 7. Its purpose is to answer two basic questions:

1. Are commercial broadcasters pursuing policies and programming practices which are inimical to the public interest?

2. What more can and should the FCC do to regulate programming and advertising?

Educators who responded to the FCC's invitation to air their views had no difficulties in answering the questions. Yes, they agreed, radio and TV programs are in many instances inimical to the public interest. As for the second question, the witnesses said that the FCC has the power not only to clean up the mayhem and the horror from programs, but must insist that any station operator set aside a portion

of favorable listening time for public service and educational programming.

In addition, Ralph Steetle, of the Joint Council on Educational Television, said the FCC "must make possible the establishment of more educational TV stations."

Mr. Steetle was one of the witnesses who kept hammering at the point that the airwaves belong to the people; that when a broadcaster is assigned a frequency for broadcasting it does not become his property; and that he must operate the station as a public trust.

Miss Martha Gable, representing the American Association of University Women, urged that the FCC require commercial station operators to announce frequently that they are licensed by the Commission for a specified period to serve the public interest.

John F. White, representing the National Educational Television and Radio Center, said that the way to raise the standards of TV and radio programs is to insist that each station prove it has met its obligations to the public before its license will be renewed. "Instead of making almost automatic renewals," Mr. White said, "the FCC should ask the question, "Why should we renew your license and what have you done for the public interest, convenience, and necessity?"

Mrs. Edmund D. Campbell, representing the Greater Washington (D.C.) Educational Television Association, focused attention on the

"educational blackout" that exists in most communities during normal listening and viewing hours. Pointing to programs offered by Washington, D.C., stations, Mrs. Campbell said:

"If you will examine these listings, Monday through Friday, you will find that before breakfast or during it you can have a little education; and between 8 and 9 in the morning, if you haven't left for work, you can have a few minutes of inspiration and religion. But from then on until most of you have gone to bed at night I don't believe you can get over TV any trace of education or religion. From 9 A.M. until bedtime, on Monday through Friday, religion, education, and discussion would seem to be entirely taboo."

The FCC hearings will continue until the middle of January. Observers predict the Commission will take some action to: (1) improve programs on commercial stations; and (2) expand facilities for educational broadcasting. These benefits, when they come, will constitute the silver lining in the black clouds which have gathered over the broadcasting industry during the past year.

About Working Conditions.—If the people want quality education for their children, they will have to support quality working conditions for teachers. And it will cost money —more money than some communities are spending today.

So says the NEA's Department of

Classroom Teachers. The organized classroom practitioners asserted their rights in a new policy statement. The rights set forth are four in number:

Teachers want the right to be treated as professionals and not as job-holders. Teachers want the time, tools, and freedom to make their tasks manageable and efficient. Teachers want to be treated fairly, as employes, as people, and as citizens. Teachers want adequate salaries and the benefits and security of a modern, wealthy economy.

Coming down to specifics, the statement stipulates that good working conditions exist when teachers are assigned to teach the subject they have been prepared for, rather than subjects for which there is a teaching vacancy. Sources of irritation to teachers also exist when the class size is too large; when there is no break in the daily schedule; and when clerical tasks are excessively heavy.

The NEA statement also calls for freedom in personal affairs of teachers; for procedures to handle grievances; and for salaries ranging from \$6,000 to \$13,000.

Interestingly enough, the policy statement favors payroll deductions. "Local payroll policy can be a genuine help in the economic security and welfare of the teacher," the statement reads. "Retirement systems, social security, federal income taxation, bond purchases, payment of professional dues, and credit union investments and loan payments—all have contributed to

the establishment of payroll deductions as a means of assuring regular payment for various economic requirements of teachers . . . The payroll policy is often the key to an economic security plan, for it enables teachers to purchase protection without meeting the cost in a large lump sum."

Balancing such materialistic notes with those about educational values, the NEA policy statement concludes: "Teacher welfare means pupil welfare. Forward-looking policies and practices with regard to conditions of work in school systems are forms of enlightenment America can ill afford to ignore. Teacher welfare ultimately becomes education welfare for children and youth."

Summary of Integration.—Two actions are necessary to help southern boards of education in their transition to integrated school systems, says the U. S. Commission on Civil Rights.

1. The President should establish a clearing house to collect and disseminate information on how southern school districts comply with the Supreme Court mandate. The Commission on Civil Rights offered its services for this purpose.

2. The President should establish a conciliation service to assist southern school systems in developing plans to meet the Supreme Court decree; and to mediate disputes arising when proposed plans are put into effect. Although the White House and Congress re-

ceived these two recommendations last September, their official reaction has been one of silence, broken only by some vitriolic speeches by southern lawmakers.

Staff members of the Commission have complained privately that a campaign of silence has confronted not only these two recommendations but the Commission's entire first report. The report deals with three problems investigated by the Commission since it was established by Congress in 1957—discrimination in voting, in public education, and in housing.

The facts on discrimination in public education were gathered primarily at a hearing held in Nashville, Tenn., March 5 and 6, 1959. These hearings, the Commission says, established two major points:

- 1. That integration in a school system does not lower its scholastic standards. Just the opposite, argues the Commission. Desegregation has been used by the local community as the occasion to raise its educational standards. Such were the results in Wilmington, Del.; Washington, D.C.; San Angelo, Texas; and St. Louis, Mo.
- 2. That integration does not result in widespread social relationships between white and Negroes. "Mixed schools report overwhelmingly that, while Negroes and whites may range from indifferent to friendly with each other in classrooms, athletics, and other student activities, they almost never mix on dates or at dances," the Commission reports. After five years of de-

segregation in Washington only one case was known of marriage between a Negro and a white who had attended the same school.

The U. S. Supreme Court decreed that school systems must make a "prompt and reasonable start" toward compliance and must "proceed with all deliberate speed."

In the first year or two after the Court's decision, lower courts were liberal in finding that a start had been made if a school board showed any activity at all-appointment of a citizens committee or a decision by the school board "to study the problem" was sufficient evidence that a start had been made. In one Tennessee case, a board was allowed six months "or more" to prepare a desegregation plan even though the problem had been before it for five years without any positive action. Later, however, the courts began to resort to injunctions against school boards which delayed making a start.

As for the definition of "deliberate speed," courts have approved plans which will require six years, seven years, and even 12 years before full compliance is achieved. Local conditions affect the courts' decisions. One court rejected a four-year plan and a 12-year plan as being too deliberate. Says the Commission: "Many more court decisions will be needed to clarify the deliberately imprecise phrase with all deliberate speed'."

Peeking into 1960.-A round of visits to Washington offices of gov-

ernmental or educational agencies brought the following facts or comments on tasks facing them during the new year:

U. S. Department of State-Under the new cultural agreement between the U.S.S.R. and the United States (signed November 21), each side will send to the other country 35 students and voung instructors for a year's study in 1960-1961 and 50 such persons in 1961-1962. The two countries will also exchange six delegations in educational research, school library techniques, and school construction. Said one State Department official: "We've already passed the stage of superficial curiosity about each other's educational system. We must now dig deeper to see what new and valuable lessons each can learn from the other."

The American Council on Education—"The loyalty oath required from college students by the National Defense Education Act must and will be eliminated. College officials find it discriminatory, unfair, inappropriate, superfluous, and ineffective. A growing list of Congressmen and Senators will support its elimination at this session of Congress."

(A person close to the White House, Milton Eisenhower, president of Johns Hopkins University and adviser to the President, said the loyalty requirement should be repealed because "it points a finger of suspicion against students who borrow money under the Act.")

JANUARY

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENCIES:

Hazelton, Pa.: Thomas L. Hinkle, superintendent for 20 years, retired on December 31.

Norristown, Pa.: Norman W. Kratz, formerly of Council Rock Joint Schools, Newtown, Pa., has been named superintendent.

Shaker Heights, Ohio: William Slade, Jr., superintendent for 15 years, has announced his retire-

ment in September 1960.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

Lake Forest College, Ill.: William Graham Cole, dean of freshmen at Williams College, Williamstown, Mass., has been appointed president, succeeding the late Ernest A. Johnson.

Whitman College, Walla Walla, Wash.: Louis B. Perry, formerly of Pomona College, has been inau-

gurated as president.

Duquesne University, Pittsburgh, Pa.: The Very Reverend Henry J. McAnulty has been named successor to the Very Reverend Vernon F. Gallagher, resigned.

AASA Convention

WITH a theme of "Creating and Coping with Change," the 1960 convention of the American Association of School Administrators, to be held Feb. 13-17 in Atlantic City, is expected to attract more than 20,000 educators.

In addition to nine general sessions, AASA members will study today's most pressing school problems during more than 100 group sessions.

Keynote speaker for the convention will be Lawrence G. Derthick, U. S. Commissioner of Education.

Other speakers that have been announced for the general sessions include: Ezra Taft Benson, Secretary of Agriculture; Nelson A. Rockefeller, governor of New York; Romney, president of American Motors Corporation; Lee Metcalf, U. S. Representative from Montana; Eric Johnston, president of the Motion Picture Association of America; Herold C. Hunt, Charles W. Eliot professor of education, Harvard University; Harold Benjamin, visiting lecturer this year at University of Buenos Aires; and Virgil M. Rogers, dean of the school of education, Syracuse University.

Exit Citizens Council

THE National Citizens Council for Better Schools ended all its activities at the end of December, having accomplished, according to its officials, its initial goals of arousing citizen interest and helping communities organize for school improvement.

The Council announced that its Interim Board of Trustees had been considering the value of launching a program to illuminate the issues in education and methods of getting these issues discussed around the country. The Board decided, however, that while such a program would be helpful to citizens working for their schools, it would be better for another organization -one whose primary purpose was not that of arousing interest-to assume such a responsibility.

John Hersey, chairman of the Interim Board of Trustees, reported that, in closing its doors, the Council leaves behind it many accomplishments in the area of citizen efforts. Since 1949, progress has been made in meeting many of the shortage problems plaguing the schools and the emphasis has now shifted to quality, Hersey stated.

During the time the Council and its predecessor, the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, have been in existence, the number of state and local citizens' committees has jumped from only 17 in 1949 to more than 18,000 in 1959.

The Council has designated the National School Boards Association, 1940 Sheridan Road, Evanston, Ill., as depository for the materials produced by the Council, where the public may obtain them.

Henry Toy, Jr., president of the Council and a former DuPont executive before becoming executive head of the Commission in 1949, has announced his intention to enter the teaching field. He and Mrs. Toy have enrolled at George Peabody College for Teachers for training to become teachers.

Higher Standards

APPROXIMATELY 3,500 high schools in 18 states affiliated with the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools will have to abide by new, higher educational standards if they are to receive Association approval beginning next September.

The new goal affects schools in the amount of courses they offer. Heretofore, the high schools did not have to offer a minimum educational program to students. The standards will be published shortly.

Project Talent

THE first national census of aptitudes and abilities of youth will get under way in March, in a study being sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education through the University of Park h.

versity of Pittsburgh.

Called Project Talent, the program calls for approximately 500,000 students in one out of every 20 high schools in the country to take a comprehensive battery of tests, lasting two days. The tests are designed to measure the unique potential and all the talents of all the students tested. The tests are not intended as substitutes for present testing programs; they are special instruments designed for this particular purpose.

The project covers more than school activities; follow-up studies are planned. The project will seek to determine what these people are doing in their jobs or in higher education one year after graduation from high school. The first survey and later questionnaires also will ask about their interests or hobbies.

The objectives of this national survey are, in addition to obtaining a national inventory of human resources, to determine the specific patterns of aptitudes, abilities, and interest which provide the best

basis for various college courses and careers; to determine the educational experiences which will contribute to the development of these aptitudes and abilities; and to determine the guidance procedures most effective in assisting each student in selecting the career which will assure him the greatest personal satisfaction and success.

Accrediting Plans

THE National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) announced in November it has set up additional machinery to handle the extra load of / accrediting programs for school administrators, in compliance with the resolution of the AASA adopted at last year's convention.

The NCATE has appointed a third section of its Visitation and Appraisal Committee and named a Subcommittee on Standards for preparation programs for

school administrators.

The AASA resolution requires all new members of the organization, starting in 1964, to have completed two years graduate study in university programs designed to prepare school administrators and approved by an accreditation body. The NCATE was approved as the accrediting body and was given an appropriation of \$36,000 by the AASA to be used on this new program.

School Bus Safety

In the first full-scale conference in five years to up-date and up-grade recommendations for minimum standards for school buses, a recent National Conference on School Transportation attempted to put more teeth into safety rules and to tighten up the rules.

Approximately 200 participants from 40 states went over recommendations last made in 1954 with a fine-toothed comb and came up with revised minimum standards. These, when published, will be presented to the states for adoption.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

Feb. 11-13, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 13-17, American Association of School Administrators, Atlantic

City, N. J.

Feb. 27-Mar. 2, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Portland, Ore.

Feb. 29-Mar. 3, NEA Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, Cincin-

nati, Ohio.

Mar. 6-9, Association for Higher

Education, Chicago, Ill.

Mar. 6-10, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Washington, D.C.

Mar. 25-30, NEA Department of Elementary School Principals, St.

Louis, Mo.

Mar. 27-April 2, White House Conference on Children and Youth. Washington, D.C.

Mar. 29-April 2, National Science Teachers Association, Kansas City,

April 3-9, National Library

Week.

17-21, Association for April Childhood Education International, Cleveland, Ohio.

April 19-22, National Catholic Educational Association, 111.

John Dewey: Master Educator.
Edited by William W. Brickman and Stanley Lehrer. New
York: Society for the Advancement of Education, 1959. Pp.
123. \$2.50, cloth; \$1.95, paperbound.

John Dewey's Challenge to Education. Oscar Handlin. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1959. Pp. 59. \$2.50.

Dialogue on John Dewey. Edited by Corliss Lamont. New York: Horizon Press, 1959. Pp. 155. \$2.50.

John Dewey: Dictionary of Education. Edited by Ralph B. Winn. New York: Philosophical Library, 1959. Pp. x + 150. \$3.75.

These four books were issued late in the fall in commemoration of the 100th anniversary of John Dewey's birth (Oct. 20, 1859). Each of the books has a different approach and each has its own contribution to make to the literature on America's famous educator and philosopher.

John Dewey: Master Educator is largely a compilation of articles on Dewey—his major activities and works, his thinking, and its influence—originally published in the Oct. 10, 1959, issue of School and Society. Authors include: William H. Kilpatrick, Junius L. Meriam, Maxine Greene, Harold A. Larrabee, Isaac B. Berkson, Robert E. Mason, M. I. Berger, William W. Brickman, and Robert L. McCaul.

In John Dewey's Challenge to Education, Oscar Handlin, a Pulitzer Prize-winning historian, analyzes the American school and its cultural context at the beginning of John Dewey's career and reassesses the influence of Dewey in relation to his time.

A transcription of an informal meeting of reminiscences and personal impressions of John Dewey makes for interesting reading in Dialogue on John Dewey. The participants were his intimate friends and professional colleagues, including: James T. Farrell, James Gutmann, Alvin Johnson, Horace M. Kallen, Corliss Lamont, Harry W. Laidler, Ernest Nagel, John H. Randall, Herbert W. Schneider, Harold Taylor, and Milton Halsey Thomas.

John Dewey: Dictionary of Education is a compilation of Dewey's statements and theories. Here, listed under various topics, alphabetically arranged, are Dewey's own words, selected by Dr. Winn out of the discursive pages in which they were imbedded.

Automatic Teaching: The State of the Art. Edited by Eugene Galanter. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959. Pp. viii + 198. \$3.25.

Most of the 16 articles in this volume are papers that were read at the first conference on the Art and Science of the Automatic Teaching of Verbal and Symbolic Skills, held at the University of Pennsylvania in December 1958.

As the editor points out in his introductory remarks, the technique of teaching by machine is quite new. "The total accumulated empirical information, although large, is scattered, and its analysis and reduction is fraught with difficulty. For this reason, most of the papers in this volume generate

more problems than they illuminate."

Many techniques are described and reviewed in this book, the first volume to be devoted to the newly developed field of machine teaching. Among the various aspects of machine teaching included programming, analysis, machine design, experimental results, and criticism.

The Child, the Parent, and the State. James B. Conant. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1959. Pp. 211. \$3.50.

In this new book, Dr. Conant enlarges on and explores the meaning of the outline he presented in The American High School Today.

After discussing the relation of government to public education in the U.S. in historical perspective. Dr. Conant turns to an assessment of our national education needs growing out of the international situation. He indicates some of the things the citizen can do at the state and national levels, and his responsibility at the local levels. In the discussion of the latter point, he includes specific recommendations regarding local high schools. His final chapter discusses the revolutional transformation of the American high school.

At the back of the book, Dr. Conant includes 60 pages of notes on items covered in the main pages

of his book.

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED:

ELEMENTARY

We Are All Americans. Bettye D. Wilson. New York: Friendly House Publishers. Pp. 32. \$2.50.

How Good Is Our Kindergarten? Lorraine Sherer. A 35-page bulletin available from Association for Childhood Education International. 1200 Fifteenth St., N.W., Washington 5, D. C. \$.75.

The True Book of Jungles. Illa Podendorf, I Want to Be a Mechanic. Carla Greene. Indian Two Feet and His Horse. Margaret Friskey. Chicago, Ill.: Childrens Press. Inc., 1959. Pp. 46, 30, and 64. \$2.00. \$2.00, and \$2.50, respectively. For beginning readers.

Help Yourselves to Music. Beatrice Perham Krone and Kurt R. Miller. San Francisco, Calif.: Howard Chandler, Publisher, 1959, Pp. 108. \$1.75. A teacher's guide.

SECONDARY

Modern Mathematics: Topics and Problems. Daymond J. Aiken and Charles A. Beseman. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959. Pp. iv + 140. \$1.48.

Better Driving. Edward W. Pepvne. William A. Mann, Horace C. Harsell. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958. Pp ix +

130. \$1.28.

The Music Curriculum in Secondary Schools. Washington, D. C .: Music Educators National Conference, 1959. Pp. 115. \$2.25. A handbook for junior-high and seniorhigh schools prepared by an MENC committee for the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

COLLEGE

Autonomy of Public Colleges: The Challenge of Coordination. Lyman A. Glenny. New York: Mc-Graw-Hill Book Company, 1959. Pp. xix + 325. \$5.95.

Graduate Study for Future College Teachers. Edited by Joseph Axelrod. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1959. Pp. xiv + 111. \$1.50.

Who Goes to Graduate School? George L. Gropper and Robert Fitzpatrick. Pittsburgh, Pa.: American Institute for Research, 1959. Pp. vi + 66.

How to Become a Successful Student. Otis D. Froe and Maurice A. Lee. New York: Arco Publishing Company, Inc., 1959. Pp. 160. \$1.25.

GENERAL

The Nature of Being Human. Edited by Marie I. Rasey. Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1959. Pp. ix + 115. \$3.95. The Franklin Lectures of 1956-57.

Our Earth. Arthur Beiser. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc.,

1959. Pp. 123. \$2.95.

Your Gifted Child; A Guide for Parents. Florence N. Brumbaugh and Bernard Roshco. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1959. Pp. ix + 182. \$3.75.

Learning and Using Words. James A. and Patricia G. Fitzgerald. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Company, 1959, Pp. 175. \$2.40.

Missiles from Concept to Countdown. A 32-page pamphlet available from The Aircraft Industries Association, 610 Shoreham Building, Washington, D. C.

AUDIO-VISUALS

Educators Guide to Free Films. (19th Edition.) Edited by Mary Foley Horkheimer and John W. Diffor. Randolph, Wis.: Educators Progress Service, 1959. Pp. x +639. \$7.00.

The Cooperative Approach to Audio-Visual Programs. Henry R. McCarty and Horace C. Hartsell. Washington, D. C.: Department of Audio-Visual Instruction and Department of Rural Education, NEA,

1959. Pp. 80. \$1.50.

Alexander Hamilton and Aaron Burr; Trappers and Traders of the Far West and Commodore Perry and the Opening of Japan; Teddy Roosevelt and His Rough Riders. New York: Enrichment Teaching Materials, 1959. \$5.95 each. Two new Enrichment Records in the Landmarks of America series.

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Volume XXV

FEBRUARY 1960

Number 5

Study Shows Interesting Relationship

Reading Ability and High-School Drop-Outs

RUTH C. PENTY

In Journal of the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors

S director of counseling in the Battle Creek High School, I had opportunity to talk with boys and girls about their scholastic difficulties and personal problems. I also had opportunity to talk with teachers and parents about the problems of young people. In addition, I had access to the mental maturity and reading scores as well as to the cumulative records of the boys and girls enrolled in our high school.

All of these contacts seemed to point to trouble with reading as one of the basic difficulties in connection with academic problems. Trouble with reading also appeared to be related to some personal problems.

Reading test scores had shown that many of our students were reading far below grade level while corresponding mental maturity scores pointed to the fact that these students had potential for growth Ruth C. Penty is Psychologist, Battle Creek Public Schools, Michigan. Reported from Journal of the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors, XXIII (October 1959), 11-15.

in reading. We, therefore, started in our high school a reading improvement program, concentrating our help on our sophomore and senior students.

It was during this period that our high-school administration became very interested—as did administrators across the nation—in the number of boys and girls who were dropping out of school before high-school graduation. We made some changes in the curriculum to help solve the drop-out problem, and we also prepared an Exit Interview Sheet for the use of all counselors so that we could gather together some data based on rea-

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sons why young people leave school. We had a hunch that reading ability might be an important factor connected with the school-leaving of boys and girls. However, we did not have valid evidence. Indeed the reasons most frequently given on our Exit Sheets were: work too difficult, lack of interest, work not suited to the abilities of students, and desire to get a full-time job.

Here was a research problem in which I was really interested—a study of reading ability and high-school drop-outs. I felt that such a study might give impetus to our reading program, and that the findings might add to the literature on early school leaving.

For this study we used reading and mental maturity tests on sophomore students for a four-year period, for those who left school and for those who graduated, and the Exit Interview Sheet for dropouts. In addition, we decided to interview the poor readers enrolled in the current senior class in the high school, the poor readers who had graduated in the three-year period, and all of the poor readers who had dropped out of school.

The study proved to be a very useful one and the data gathered, through its several approaches, very valuable. None was more interesting than that obtained through interviews with drop-outs and graduates.

Referring first to the drop-outs, it was especially interesting to find that in very few cases were the

reasons given on the Exit Sheet by students at the time of leaving school like the reasons given by these young people from one to six years afterwards. The type of answer given at exit was in most cases one which was acceptable and which permitted easy escape.

REFERENCES TO READING

In the later conference, reasons given seemed more nearly like basic reasons. Answers like: "I was discouraged," "I didn't like school too well," "I wanted to get married," "I thought the Marines was a better place to be," "I had to go to work," and the like were given many times, but in a surprising number of answers reference also was made to reading difficulty. had difficulty in reading," couldn't remember what I read," "I had trouble in getting the ideas from my reading," "I didn't know some of the words so I couldn't understand them" were typical responses received.

These statements made by poor readers during the interviews emphasized the multiplicity of reasons why boys and girls leave school before graduation. They also point to the influence which reading difficulty has in causing young people to decide to leave school when that difficulty causes them to and to feel that they are inadereading.

I refer now to the poorreading students who went on to

graduate. Various reasons were given in response to the interview question, "What do you think are the main reasons why you continued in school until graduation even though you had some difficulty with reading?" Some of these were: a strong personal desire to graduate, encouragement of family, family expectation, interest in certain other subjects and in sports, help and encouragement from teachers and counselors, a desire to be with the other young people, and an appreciation of probability that "you couldn't get much of a job if you did not graduate."

IMPLICATIONS

The following is a summary of findings of our study, followed by conclusions and implications for education:

More than three times as many poor readers as good readers dropped out of school before graduation; the peak of school leaving among the drop-outs was during the 10th grade.

There was no significant difference in average reading scores at the 10th-grade level of the poor readers who dropped out of school before graduation and of the poor readers who remained in school until graduation.

The interview data emphasized that difficulty in reading played a very important role in boys and girls leaving school when certain other problems and pressures were also present.

The interview data on the poor

readers who had remained in school was equally revealing. Although they also had difficulty in reading, the better emotional and social adjustment of the graduates -probably the result of home security, interest, and economic status superior to that of the boys and girls who dropped out of school-and also of more fortunate school experiences permitted them to be less burdened by a multiplicity of problems among which the reading problem was but one. They were getting some real satisfactions from school: they enjoyed the school dances, athletics, and other extraclass activities, were interested in doing well in one or more subjects, and "liked the kids" in their school. These seemed to be some of the reasons why pupils of low reading ability persisted in school until they graduated. would appear that more attention should be given to these favorable conditions to lower the percentage of drop-outs.

A study of the disparity between reading ages and mental ages of the poor readers who dropped out of school and of the poor readers who remained in school but who experienced difficulty in reading revealed that a very large percentage of the young people in both groups had potential in reading ability. With proper help, these students could have shown marked improvement in reading ability, which would probably have contributed to better scholastic achievement and personality adjustment.

A Study of High and Low Achievers

Television, Books, and School Marks

ARTHUR S. McDonald

In Journal of Developmental Reading

N the past few years some conflicting reports have been published concerning the relationships of the number of hours spent watching television to school marks -and to reading. Concerning the latter, some writers have variously pointed out that there is more reading being done today than a decade ago, that there is less reading being done, or that there is more reading being done by fewer people. Others have ascribed such outcomes to the effect of television. Thus, television has been hailed as the stimulant to reading, a deterrent to reading, or of no effect.

Recent studies have shown practically no relationship between the amount of televiewing and scholastic performance. But there is a possibility that, in previous studies, any relationship between time spent televiewing and scholastic performance was masked by the middle range of the sample distribution. Accordingly, this study was designed to investigate the admitted TV viewing patterns-and the reading habits-of the top and bottom 27 percent groupings of a representative sample of highschool students.

In this study the upper 27 percent were designated as the High Achiever group and the lowest 27 percent were termed the Low Arthur S. McDonald is Director of Reading Services at Marquette University, Milwaukee, Wisconsin. Reported from Journal of Developmental Reading, III (Autumn 1959), 27-34.

Achiever group. The study used the responses of 1650 students in grades 10 and 12 in high schools in Milwaukee, Chicago, and Albany. The comments which follow concern the findings of the investigation.

The average viewing time claimed by the entire survey group was 13.5 hours a week. The mean time spent by the High Achiever group in watching television was 8.5 hours a week. The Low Achiever group spent 19 hours a week televiewing. Although the difference between the two groups in mean viewing time is statistically highly significant, the relationship to scholastic achievement within the groups is relatively low.

The listing of television programs most often watched by both groups revealed some interesting data. The High Achiever group listed a greater number of programs which demanded a purposeful, intellective approach. Also, practically all of those claiming to regularly watch programs such as

"Meet the Press" and "Face the Nation" were in the High Achiever group.

In general, it may also be said (within the limitations of sampling used) that the low achievers named a greater number of programs with conventional hero and villain plots. Many of this group apparently sat glued for hours at a time to their TV screens watching programs which make little, if any, demand on their intellects. Many of the sample respondents evidenced their passive surrender to the hypnotic eye of the television set by writing that they spent 30 to 40 hours a week watching "just anything which happens to be on."

Although there are educational television channels available in Chicago and Milwaukee, the survey shows practically no claimed regular free-time use of them. Only 25 of the 1460 students in Milwaukee and Chicago said they regularly watched programs which appear on these educational TV stations. Of the programs on commercial television which may be classified as educational in nature or content, only a minority of the high achievers admitted watching any of them regularly.

The claimed reading habits, as reported by students in the survey, differed significantly. The High Achiever group reported an average of four hours a week spent in reading books not connected with class assignments or school work. The Low Achiever group claimed

a mean of 1.1 hours a week on voluntary reading.

In this study, the books claimed as read by students were classified in one of the following two categories: "academic, theoretical, cultural, and classic;" or "current events, popular and best sellers, adventure." These categories had previously been established on a priori grounds by George Stern et al. and used in a study of college students. Based on Stern's findings, the assumption was made that high achievers would, in the main, be characterized by highly purposeful and intellectual activities, with a lesser interest in purely recreational type reading. The books listed by students in the sample groups of this study were classified into these categories by a member of the Marquette University English Department-an instructor who had no knowledge of the students' academic or television performance. The results follow:

Books Read by High and Low Achievers

High Low

Academic, theoretical, cultural, and classic 51% 14% Current events, popular and best sellers,

adventure 49% 75% 100% 89%

The relationships between these book categories (taken separately) and scholastic performance are of moderate magnitude. The relationship between the pattern of reading (both types of categories taken together) and scholastic performance is substantial. This suggests

that high achievers engage in voluntary reading which is more purposeful and intellective than that done by low achievers. Thus, the high achievers not only claim to read more, but they read books which demand more intellectual capacity than do the low achievers.

It is interesting to observe that the group in this study claiming the least voluntary reading—the Low Achiever group — read more than the adult population reads, as shown by surveys over the past decade. Lester Asheim, in What Do Adults Read?, notes that there are few adults in the U.S. who do much reading of a purely voluntary nature. Furthermore, reading shows a significant drop at the school-leaving point.

It may be that television is only part of a much larger problem. Certainly, it has received a great deal of attention because of its great accessibility, the dramatic impact it seems to have made on leisure-time habits, and the ease with which children (and adults) can use it. But the real problem may result from what some observers have seen as the current stress on reducing the effort required for all activities. It cannot be denied that the bulk of television presentations do virtually all the work for the user.

Be that as it may, this survey showed that low achievers did relatively little voluntary reading. Most of this reading was of the ephemeral, low demand type. The low achievers did a great deal of televiewing. Most of this, likewise, was of the highly ephemeral type which placed little, if any, demand on the viewer for either effort or participation. Little of the reading reported by this group had any more value than the bulk of the television programs watched.

It may be that both television activity and reading activity reflect the individual's degree of willingness to engage in highly purposeful, intellective activities. In part, this willingness would be based on individual ability, taste, and discrimination of excellence. These are largely attributes of training and education. Reading requires more ability than televiewing. Televiewing of serious, thoughtprovoking programs requires more ability, and much more active participation, of the viewer than do shows of a stereotyped nature.

Therefore, it may be said that watching television is not per se bad; reading is not per se good. It is true that reading can (and perhaps more often than television does) engage the mind of the reader and compels him to meet the author at least part way. It is also true that television can (and perhaps too often does) occupy time without occupying the mind of the viewer. Television can be a comforting distraction from fatigues and anxieties of the day for one who has grappled with challenging problems; it can be an opiate for the drugged viewer who sits thoughtlessly watching the flicker of the cathode tube.

Teaching Study Skills in Reading

NILA BANTON SMITH

In The Elementary School Journal

N the nomenclature of reading instruction, terms like word recognition and comprehension have been used for years. Unlike these expressions, study skills is a comparatively new term, and it labels a fairly new concept.

Perhaps because our recognition of this category of skills is recent, we are not yet sure exactly what skills belong under this heading. This fact may explain why some elementary-school teachers have not yet fully sensed the significance of their role in developing study skills in primary and intermediate grades.

What are study skills in reading? Some define them broadly as habits, attitudes, states of mind that are conducive to study; for example, working in a quiet place, budgeting time, attacking an assignment efficiently, concentrating during study. While these habits and attitudes are conducive to the best use of reading skills, it does not seem appropriate to consider them as reading study skills.

Some think of comprehension—literal comprehension—and interpretation as study skills. By study skills, others mean rapid reading, skimming, scanning, and various other speed skills. It is true that we use comprehension skills and speed skills in studying. But do we

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not also use these skills in other kinds of reading? Are these skills confined only to study?

I find it helpful to think of reading study skills as those skills that form an integral part of the reading process—skills that are used especially when we want to apply the content read. Thus conceived, study skills in reading may be broadly defined as skills we use when we intend to do something with the content we have read.

To use an example outside of school: A housewife decides to look for a recipe for a new dish to add zest to the evening meal. She turns to the table of contents in her cookbook, sees a possibility, and finds the page. She reads the recipe carefully and perhaps rereads it to make sure that she has all the ingredients and that the dish is easy to prepare. Then she puts the information to work in preparing the dish for dinner. She has done something with the reading content. In a way different from that in which she reads for pleasure-or even for

information—she has used study skills in reading.

Thus it is with the child in the elementary school. He may read a story in a reader because he enjoys it. He may read a story on space travel because it intrigues him. If he does nothing with the content of either story, he is not using study skills in reading. But he is using study skills when he reads in science and social studies for the purpose of gathering facts to use in class discussion, in experimentation, in demonstration, in making a report, a summary, an evaluation. And he uses reading study skills in arithmetic when he reads a problem and applies information gained from his reading to work the problem. The value of specific study skills may be illustrated very well by using arithmetic as an example. Arithmetic text embraces reading content that differs markedly from narrative reading as well as from the text of geography, history, and science. Arithmetic text is more compact than text in any of the other fields. It is complicated by having numerical symbols woven into the sentence along with word symbols. Every one of these symbols, whether it is a word or a numeral, must be taken into consideration. Detailed directions and exact explanation must be understood and used; problems that call for a careful weighing of relationships and a high level of reasoning must be

One type of arithmetic content

will be used here as an example for discussion—the problem-solving type:

Four of Edith's friends will help her make things for a party. The 5 girls have 100 paper lanterns, 36 paper hats, and 36 baskets to make. This is an average of how many things for each girl?

This type of content requires a first reading for the purpose of visualizing the scene or the situation as a whole. The child gets a picture of the girls working together to prepare paper lanterns, hats, and baskets for a party. The reading skills used in this reading are comparable to those the child has been accustomed to using when he reads narrative in a story book. It will not be difficult for the child to visualize the scene, but his attention should be called to the need for a mental picture of a problem. He should be given some guidance through questions: "What did you see when you read that paragraph? If you were to paint a picture to illustrate the paragraph, what would you put in the picture?"

Concentration on the significance of the question at the end of the paragraph is a distinctive skill needed in solving arithmetic problems. When the child is reading a story, he seldom encounters a question in the text. If he does, the question has probably been asked for rhetorical effect. It doesn't matter whether he answers it or not. In problem-solving, everything depends on the question. Children need considerable experience in reading problems just for

the purpose of finding out the problem. The teacher will have to ask: "What does the question ask you?" Children will need practice in telling in their own words what the question directs them to do.

Other distinct and complex skills are involved in rereading the problem to break it down into elements needed to work out a solution. This process involves selection and evaluation in picking out facts and relationships pertinent to the question. While the child rereads the entire paragraph, he must hold the question in mind and use it as a guide to determine the relevance and relationships of details. The reading skills needed in this aspect of problem-solving can be developed and strengthened by experience in rereading problems, accompanied by pointed discussion and skillful questions on the part of a teacher who is herself aware of the readings skills involved.

Finally, the arithmetical process must be selected, again in terms of "what the question asks" and the various other considerations that were weighed in the balance during the rereading of the problem. Then the child is ready to write the numbers on paper and do the computation.

Up to this last step, the work has

been concerned largely with reading skills, many of which are not taught in connection with basic reading instruction or any other subject.

Sometime during the course of transmission of opinions, beliefs, and customs from one generation of teachers to another, a legend evolved that reading should be taught during special periods set aside for the express purpose of giving the child control over the skills of reading. Likewise, legend has dictated that arithmetic, science, geography, and history should be taught at specific times in the daily program for the purpose of developing distinctive skills and imparting characteristic knowledge in each of these fields. Usually all of this is done with little or no consideration for the development of reading skills as one aspect of this specialized instruction.

Reading proficiency could be improved immeasurably if more attention were given to the development of study skills in the primary and intermediate grades. Perhaps this is one way of reducing reading casualties in high school and college, where knowing how to study is the most important category of all reading skills.

RIMARY teachers eventually tend to speak and think like their reading books, reports the Mississippi Educational Advance. One teacher in Shaw, Miss., it reports, got out of her brand new car when it was damaged in an accident and exclaimed, "Oh! Oh! Look! Look! Look!

Blueprint for a Successful Bond or Tax Election

JOHNS H. HARRINGTON

In The Nation's Schools

HERE is no single blueprint which every school system can use in its community relations. Yet all the plans and programs in each of them must somehow inform the public of the "race for space" to meet rising enrolments and of the battle to keep school income abreast of spiraling costs for equipment and salaries.

This critical need for communication with the community is heightened when school measures are to appear on the ballot. It is then that the regular public information office for the system must be greatly expanded. Or an "information center" must be organized to handle specific election inquiries and to coordinate the many activities suggested in the application of such principles as I am recommending here.

Putting children first. From the outset of any informational program, school personnel must stress in every contact with the public, as well as in their own thinking, that the bond issue—or tax increase—which is going from the educational drawing board to the ballot

is designed primarily to furnish the individual child with an adequate or better education. It is much too easy for well-meaning administrators and teachers to point out to the electorate that a given proposal may bring better cafeterias, libraries, gymnasiums, or administrative offices. These may be essential for a school, but the prospective voter thinks in terms of classrooms and benefits to the youngsters themselves. It is on the children that interest must be centered during any informational program.

Pulling together. When there are to be measures on the ballot regarding separate building bonds for elementary schools, for junior-high and senior-high schools, and for junior colleges, it is poor professional thinking to conduct separate informational proposals on behalf of each proposal. Presentation of bond or tax proposals on a "package basis" to the community means less duplication and more economy as well as sound educational thinking

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Obtaining strong partners. No matter how capable and well organized school staffs may be in conveying pupil needs at election time, no such program can be adequate unless it has a parallel effect in the community led by prominent citizens and civic organizations. At the start of an informational program, the services of such a group as the P.T A. may be enlisted to call together representatives of chambers of commerce, service clubs, business and industry, unions, women's clubs, and other groups to pick a general chairman and steering committee. One of the first problems will be fund raising to pay for campaign literature, car stickers, billboard space, radio spot announcements, and many other expenses. Obviously, these are items that the schools could not appropriately provide, even if they could afford to do so. Whatever the approach or whatever organization is undertaken by groups in the community, plans must be developed months prior to election and long before the start of the actual informational program to the community.

Going to grass roots. Inexperienced campaigners sometimes assume that plenty of favorable newspaper publicity as well as a lively and successful speakers' bureau will bring out a sufficient favorable vote on election day. Unfortunately, elections more often bring out the minority that is opposed to school measures. Therefore, the goal of every school

informational program should be to reach each household in the school district on a door-to-door basis. In this great task, it is often local P.T.A.'s who have the enthusiasm and other resources to take the initiative under strong leadership.

Utilizing all media. Few will disagree that all media should be used to reach a maximum audience prior to an election, but those heading the informational program must utilize their resourcefulness to assure that such excellent theory is put into practice. In addition to the press, radio, television, and house-to-house canvassing, other important outlets may include direct mailing, telephone campaigning, club newsletters, house organs, pulpit and sound truck announcements, announcements by political candidates for national, state, and local offices, sample ballots, car stickers, posters, charts and graphs, leaflets with milk deliveries, and talks to audiences of all kinds.

The text of every release—of whatever nature—should avoid the use of "professional lingo." And the examples and figures used should be those which are understood by people who handle business and household budgets.

Building "esprit de corps." More than one promising informational program has slowed down as the result of bickering or discontent among those participating in the effort. The exercise of diplomacy and sound leadership can become very important. It is virtually impossible to please every teacher and administrator, but the wise director will consult his steering committee and other aides before arriving at a crucial policy or directive. Then he will be careful to put out a bulletin promptly to the informational program committees in each school explaining why the action was necessary and how it can best be supported.

Stressing objectivity. Demons of emotional and personal pressure, as well as over-enthusiasm, can easily color news and radio releases and speeches given in behalf of tax increases or building bonds. Or perhaps a statement may have been thrown in that has not been carefully documented. Either situation may lead to a public release that can come back in two years or five years to haunt not only the originator but also the entire school system. Making accuracy and objectivity fetishes in a school informational program is not time wasted. It is an investment that cannot be duplicated.

Maintaining uniformity. Consistency of information can also be an aid to the success of any school bond or tax program. Sometimes several slightly different answers may all be accurate but it usually pays to weigh these and then select one as the official view for use by all school personnel. Among the devices for this purpose are fact sheets, progress reports, sample talks, and standard instruction sheets for teachers and principals, as well as community leaders.

Local appeal. It is important to be accurate when making a local appeal intended to emphasize what an individual school or area in a school district will receive in the event that the proposals are approved at the polls. It must be remembered that ground won't be broken the day after the election because of delays involved in letting of bids, construction schedules, and other technicalities. Whatever the situation, officials will find that the school program will benefit the most by being honest and realistic about what work will be made possible at each school and approximately when it will start.

Avoiding supersalesmanship. The importance of avoiding supersalesmanship in a school campaign has already been implied, but this principle deserves special emphasis. A policy of overselling is just as harmful to education as it is to business. The information program must be straightforward and open. Accusations of "surprise moves" or so-called "cover-ups" must studiously avoided. This can be done both in presentation and procedure. The board of education should publicly approve plans for remedying classroom shortages or for supplying essential services, equipment, and teachers. This information can then be made available in fact sheets, leaflets, etc.

Reaching minorities. Too often minority racial or national groups in the community are overlooked in an informational program when they may actually represent valu-

able potential support and offset indifference expressed elsewhere. To those who believe that the geographical or grass-roots approach has been sufficient to reach these people, it should be said that overlapping coverage is always good insurance.

Feeling the pulse of the public. Despite careful research, capable leadership in and out of the school system, and painstaking preparation of informational materials, questions or opinions may develop in the community that can destroy weeks of constructive effort. For this reason it is vital that the school system's "information center" as well as the citizens' committees keep tab on problems as they develop. Once a pattern of inquiries has developed, answers can be worked out for distribution to speakers who may be confronted with the same questions.

Timing of the election. Picking the correct occasion on which to vote for school measures may seem beyond the scope of planning an informational program, but the selection of a polling date may well have a critical effect. One consideration in planning school ballot dates is the reduction of costs to the school district by combining with a county, state, or national election. It has been noted, also, that in elections of maximum interest to the community-when voting is heaviest-schools have a better chance. And experience has shown that it is far better to vote on educational matters when school is in

session. Otherwise parents, who are usually the most active sup porters of school measures, may no even be in town.

Follow-up and evaluation. Ever informational program should b organized and administered wit the understanding that school per sonnel and citizens committees wi follow-up and evaluate the effor after the polls are closed and ba lots are finally counted Of cours the success or failure of the bon proposal or tax rate increases w be the best criterion to use evaluating the success of the e deavor. But whatever the result acknowledgment of cooperatio recognition of leadership and e dorsements, and assurance that the schools continue to seek public i terest will be highly appropriate Questionnaires and other device may be used among persons with worked on the informational pr gram to determine better prod dures and to develop other refir ments. These can be profitably ta ulated and analyzed for future u

Each community, as it prepare the blueprint for its own campaig will have its own problems a will make its adaptations to them. Each situation also will conditioned by: (1) the existic confidence of the voters in the board of education and profession staff; (2) the satisfaction of redents with the current education product; and (3) the effectivem with which a public information program is already in operation a part of the daily school routine.

Should We Use Mass-Production Techniques?

A Wrong Approach to the Right Problem

J. Douglas Brown

In The Journal of Higher Education

SEARDSLEY RUML, in the widely publicized Memo to a College Trustee* has demonstrated, by neat and tidy figures, that if the liberal-arts colleges of America will emulate the techniques of mass production of the automobile industry, they, too, can pay attractive salaries. Since he does not believe that the faculties of American liberal-arts colleges will buy this tempting proposition, he favors taking the decision out of their hands and turning it over to boards of trustees who, one is led to assume, will use better judgment.

Essential to all mass-production systems is standardization, whether in cars or courses. The essence of the Ruml plan, despite his condemnation of "proliferation," is not so much to eliminate courses with small enrolment as to be dead sure that two-thirds of an individual student's work is taken in courses that are as large as possible. If the student will adjust his idea of a liberal education to what the college decides is best for him and most economical for the institution

for two-thirds of his course program, then the college will let him have some real freedom of choice in respect to the other third. The parallel with the automobile industry is all too clear—the basic models are standard, but one can choose the color and the extras.

The nub of Mr. Ruml's argument is that the ratio of faculty members to students should be I to 20. Since faculty salaries are the major variable cost in higher education, and tuition fees are the major variable income, the effect of a greater number of students per teacher is readily apparent. Mr. Ruml is anxious that the increased flow of tuition fees per teacher should go toward improved faculty salaries. Greater "productivity" should lead to higher wages, whether in manufacturing or education.

But unfortunately for Mr. Ruml's thesis, and fortunately for the development of true excellence in the young people of America, our leaders in liberal education have never accepted the premise that liberal education is "produced" by de-

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^{*} Memo to a College Trustee: A Report on Financial and Structural Problems of the Liberal College. Beardsley Ruml and Donald H. Morrison. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959.

canting knowledge from the mind of the teacher into the mind of the student like water from a pitcher into a glass. This concept of education, in general, is both superficial and confused. In liberal education, subject matter is primarily a means to an end—the development in the student of a whole complex of personal attributes: powers of analysis, reasoning, evaluation, imagination, perception, proportion, taste, restraint, and effective expression.

TEACHER A MIDDLEMAN

Underlying all true liberal education is the goal of enhancing individual personality, in its fullest sense, by interaction between the student and the greatest minds of the past. The teacher is but a middleman in this process; yet, if effective, he is a powerful catalyst. Knowledge is only one of his tools. He must transmit enthusiasm, establish standards, criticize, encourage, demonstrate, discipline, evaluate, and reward. Since there is wide diversity of interests, capacities, and responses among his students, even if they are equally "intelligent," the teacher must, so far as conditions permit, attempt to pattern his employment of the particular substantive vehicle of liberal education to bring about interaction in the differing personalities who are his students.

For these reasons, liberal education should be the *last* great area in American life to succumb to the techniques of mass production.

The large lecture has its place

in liberal education, just as the book, the visual aid, the laboratory demonstration, and the recorded symphony have their appropriate roles. They may present knowledge, form, order, procedure, or other content as effectively as it can be done in a one-way direction. But interaction is the essence of the educative process; not so much the passive interaction of note-taking for examinations, but that of thoroughgoing discussion between student and teacher, and student and student in the presence of the teacher, in the quest for the more precise analysis, procedure, evaluation, or expression. To truly understand, one must be able to restate ideas clearly in one's own language, orally or in writing. To create new ideas for oneself or the world, one must understand old ideas and have tested them in the interplay of critical discussion.

THE LARGE LECTURE

The large lecture, which is the key to Ruml's formula for the economic salvation of liberal education, becomes a distinctly inferior instrument in liberal education when it takes over the central and predominating role, unsupported by some means of assuring much closer contact between teacher and student in some part of each course. Unless there is opportunity for discussion, the lecture and the textbook become the student's major resource, not for creative development of his powers, but for encouraging conformity to a mass of information and judgments presented by the lecturer and author. The information may be accurate and the judgments sound, but they are still merely the raw materials for the educative process, and not the process itself.

Ruml, in a revealing passage, states that "the assumption that the lower the ratio of student to teacher in particular subjects, the higher the quality of instruction, has never been substantiated." If liberal education must prove its worth by students' marks on truefalse examinations, the advantage of lower ratios never will be substantiated. If liberal education means the accumulation of knowledge, passively absorbed and passively repeated at examination time, then all kinds of mass techniques are appropriate, both in presentation and in testing.

EDUCATION IN CONFORMITY

Such education in conformity is not new. It was the method of the Chinese in ancient times. But it is not the kind of education which develops excellence, the excellence so greatly needed by America today. It is not truly liberal education. It is a cheap substitute for an ever expensive process, the interaction of the teacher and the taught, the education of young people who can think for themselves and can assume responsibility for solving the unprecedented problems of their times.

Mr. Ruml is justifiably disturbed with the faults apparent in the

administrative organization of educational institutions. This—administrative organization—is a field in which he *has* had a great deal of experience.

ADMINISTRATIVE WEAKNESS

The most serious weakness in the administrative organization of many universities and colleges is the almost studied avoidance of the central planning function.

It is this kind of weakness in institutional organization which permits a college or university to waste its substance in an unplanned and uncontrolled proliferation of courses, in an unbalanced staff, in inequitable salaries, and in teaching loads varying from sweatshop to leisurely. It is this lack of organization and of the capacity for planning and making plans stick that will, if not corrected, impair the effectiveness of many colleges in serving more students or in paying decent salaries.

The American people should spend a lot more on higher education, but they have the right to demand that colleges and universities, their boards, administrations, and faculties join in assuring donors and parents that their money will be wisely spent. And, if the colleges can learn from industry that sound organization and planning are vital to continuing effectiveness, they will not need to emulate those elements of industry which would be destructive of their purposes—the techniques of mass production

Significant Judicial Decisions

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In NEA Research Bulletin

COURTS in the past decade have rendered many decisions which affect public education, public-school teachers, and publicschool pupils. A few of these decisions-such as the 1954 desegregation cases-made front page headlines. Others which have far reaching effect were noticed only by school-law specialists. The most significant decisions since 1952-in addition to the diverse issues of desegregation-had at issue governmental immunity, the union shop for public-school teachers, and released time for religious education.

Desegregation

In the matter of the desegregation decisions, there were those who thought that the Supreme Court had reversed itself without warning in abandoning the "separate but equal" doctrine when—in unanimous decision—it held that racial segregation in the public schools is unconstitutional. (Brown v. Board of Education, 347 U.S. 483.) It was clear to others, however, that the Court had been moving in this direction in previous decisions.

Beginning in 1938, the Court's

public education decisions on gradually weakened the "separate but equal" doctrine. That year, in a case which arose in Missouri, the Court held that to require a Negro to accept a tuition scholarship provided by the state to go to another state to attend law school was unconstitutional when a law school for white students was provided within the state. And in 1948 the Court ordered the state of Oklahoma to provide legal education for Negroes equal to that provided for white students. In 1950, the Court held that the separate Negro law school provided by the state of Texas was not equal to the law school of the University of Texas. Also in 1950, the Court held that segregated seating in the graduate school of the University of Oklahoma was a denial of the equal protection of the laws to the Negro student who complained.

Then, in the 1954 Brown decision, the Court faced squarely the issue of "separate but equal" doc-

Reported from NEA Research Bulletin, XXXVII (October 1959), 83-86. trine. It held, in effect, that separation of the races *per se* in the public schools is unequal and unconstitutional. It then directed the lower courts to:

take such proceedings and enter such orders and decrees consistent with this opinion as are necessary and proper to admit to the public schools on a racially nondiscriminatory basis with all deliberate speed the parties to these cases.

Governmental Immunity

It was in 1959 that the Supreme Court of Illinois reversed a 50-yearold decision by abolishing the rule that school districts are not liable in tort for the negligence of their employes (Moliter v. Kaneland Community Unit District 302). Some states, by statute, have abrogated or abolished the governmental immunity rule-a commonlaw rule of long standing which evolved from the English theory of the divine right of kings. Some courts have condemned the existence of the rule but have abided by it, stating that the legislature, not the court, has the power to abolish it. But this Illinois court declared that it had the power to abolish the immunity rule. Andin the case referred to-it permitted a pupil to recover damages from a school district for injuries suffered in a school-bus accident.

The court recognized that most legal scholars writing in the tort field today condemn the governmental immunity theory and rejected it with these words:

In preserving the sovereign im-

munity theory, the courts have overlooked the fact that the Revolutionary War was fought to abolish that "divine right of kings" on which the theory is based.

Union Shop

It was in June 1959 that the Montana Supreme Court handed down a 3 to 2 decision on a case which had at issue for the first time the validity of a union-shop provision applied to public-school teachers. The court held that the Union Security Clause contained in the contract, requiring membership in the Butte Teachers Union as a condition to receiving salary increases, was illegal and void (Benson et al. v. School District No. 1 of Silver Bow County et al.).

In 1956 the school district had entered into a "master agreement" with the Butte Teachers Union. The agreement established a salary schedule and provided that "the single salary principle of equal salary for equal training and experience shall prevail." The agreement also contained clauses which provided that all tenure teachers employed by the board of the school district must become members of the union and maintain their membership in good standing in order to receive any salary increases negotiated by the union. Nontenure teachers who refused to join the union were to be discharged. This "union clause" was to be inserted in all teacher contracts.

Eight tenure teachers returned their contracts for 1956-57, signed, but with the security clause deleted. They also deleted the clause in their 1957-58 and 1958-59 contracts. As a result, these eight teachers did not receive their annual increments for any of those years; their salaries remained at the 1955-56 level. These teachers sued to obtain an order to compel the school district to enter into contracts with them and to require the issuance of salary warrants for the payment of the salary designed under the master agreement. They requested the court to declare that the Union Security Clause was null and void and that the school district had no authority to discriminate against teachers who do not become members of the teachers union.

In holding the Union Security Clause in the contract null and void, the Montana Supreme Court stated that the school trustees had no authority or power to discriminate between the teachers employed by them as to the amount of salary paid to each because of membership or lack of membership in a labor union-that it might as well provide that increased salary should not be allowed to those who do not affiliate with a certain lodge, service club, church, or political party.

Released Time

In recent years there has developed a practice of excusing pupils from the public-school programpossibly one hour a week-for religious instruction. Pupils may attend whatever class in religion they choose, or none. Religious instruction as part of the school program is forbidden by many state constitutions, statutes, and court decisions. Decisions on the constitutionality of these programs have been handed down by the high courts of several states and by the Supreme Court of the United States. Whether or not a particular released-time practice is constitutional appears to depend on the type of plan. Although two plans may have for their purpose the provision of released time for religious instruction, a court might uphold one but not the other because of the factors involved. There was, therefore, widespread interest in a New York City case (Zorach v. Clauson et al., 343 U.S. 306).

Here the Supreme Court of the United States in 1952 upheld as constitutional New York City's released-time plan. Under the New York plan, pupils were excused from school to go to religious centers for religious instruction. The excuse was conditioned on the request of parents and pupils' attendance. The churches reported attendance weekly to the schools. All costs were paid by the churches.

While there were three sharply worded dissenting opinions, the majority of the Court said that there was involved in the New York program neither religious instruction in the public-school classrooms nor the expenditure of public funds for sectarian education. The majoritv opinion discussed separation of Church and State but went on to point out that "we are a religious people whose institutions presuppose a Supreme Being, that we guarantee the freedom to worship as one chooses, that we make room for as wide a variety of beliefs and creeds as the spiritual needs of man deem necessary, and that when the state does not accomodate the public service to the spiritual needs of its citizens it would appear to prefer those who believe in no religion over those who do believe." Mr. Justice Black, in his dissent, pointed out that here is not a question of whether New York state had entered too far into a forbidden field but whether it had entered at all. "New York," he said, "is manipulating its compulsory educa-

tion laws to help religious sects get pupils. This is not separation but combination of Church and State."

The decisions in these four cases have settled the issues that were before the courts in each case; it is unlikely, however, that other cases, on similar subjects, will not reach the courts again. case of the desegregation decision, the constitutional issue is settled, but for several years to come courts will be deciding cases based on that decision. The issues of governmental immunity and the union shop for teachers are likely to arise in other states and may reach high courts for decision. Released-time programs for religious education which differ from the New York program may be challenged as unconstitutional and may reach the Supreme Court.

TARY

A RECENT American Jewish Congress survey on separation of church and state reveals that six states (Arizona, Colorado, Kansas, Nevada, Washington, and Wisconsin) have gone beyond the restrictions set up by the United States Supreme Court in its two released-time decisions. They object to the use of school children's "public-school time" for religious education. Fourteen states indicated that released-time programs may be upheld only if they comply strictly with the limitations of the McCollum and Zorach cases decided by the Supreme Court: that is, that their programs are not held on school premises and do not utilize public-school facilities and funds. In three states-Virginia, West Virginia, and Florida—there is an indication that some type of religious education may be permitted within the public-school building during the school hours. -From The Christian Science Monitor.

Why Not a National

Uniform System?

Reporting to Parents— Why?

What?

How?

WILLIAM M. ALEXANDER

In NEA Journal

ANY boy or girl can tell us why schools send reports home: so that parents may know how their children are getting along in school. The newer (and for the most part better) reporting practices have not reduced parents' basic interest in their children's progress.

But reporting systems-and the marks or grades which have long been their accepted symbols-have become confusing. They often have lost their central purposethat of reporting to parents. Nevertheless, of the various, frequently confusing purposes of reporting systems, two seem clear-cut and justifiable:

1. Parents should have information about their children's progress

and standing in school. If this information can be given in a way that promotes understanding of home and school, all the better. But the information needs to be sufficiently factual, even if disappointing, so that the mother and father can use it to understand Certainly and help their child. such information at the high-school level should also be available to college-admission officials and prospective employers.

2. Ultimately, it is even more important that boys and girls have the best information available in understandable form about their To understand own progress. themselves, to capitalize on their strong points, and to remedy, if possible, their weaker ones, they need to know what these strengths and weaknesses are. Many types of evaluative data are needed for this purpose in addition to a sixweeks' or twelve-weeks' set of marks, but the accumulation and summary of facts at reporting time may be useful in the pupil's own plan for continued, improved progress.

There are many differences of opinion and practice about the purposes of reporting. But these seem almost minor as compared to those which exist about the content of reports. Great variations occur -----

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in the items on which information is reported and in the marking symbols.

VARIED PHILOSOPHIES

The educational philosophy in a school, system, or classroom is likely to control the content of the report. If achievement in subject matter is a central goal, the report card gives pupils' standing in knowledge of subjects of the curriculum. If behavior according to stated criterions of growth and development is a goal, then a description of relevant behavior is reported. If progress in various work skills and habits is desired, then the report indicates pupils' status or progress in specific skills and habits.

Since the instructional program typically serves more than one of these goals, the report may give a mark in the subjects and a check on various behavior traits and work habits. Sometimes, however, the philosophy is not clearly stated or understood by either parents or teachers.

The dominant philosophy relates also to the basis on which standing and progress are determined:

Does an A, for example, mean that the pupil is doing top work with respect to his own potential or to the norm for the class? And, if the latter, is the norm determined as an average of the distribution of marks in the class, or by the teacher's expectation of some standard of achievement, or by the norms of some standardized test?

And does it describe the pupil's present standing or his progress since some previous time?

An A may mean any of these things in different communities, in different schools in the same community, or perhaps even in different classrooms of the same school.

Confusion arises, at least among some pupils and parents, when the items and underlying philosophies vary from level to level. The transition from elementary to secondary schools in many communities includes introduction to the use of letter marks for achievement and perhaps elimination of reports on behavior characteristics and work habits.

I am not alarmed by these variations or even by the confusions they create for parents and pupils. Instead I see them as encouraging signs of genuine concern by American teachers for finding better ways of reporting to parents in the interest of helping the individual pupils.

Although further experimentation with what to report is critically needed, would it not be well meanwhile to stick to the two central purposes for reporting mentioned earlier?

Should not the school faculty be certain, first, that parents understand what their children's reports are intended to tell, and second, that the reports summarize data which pupils can use, and indeed have already used, in selfappraisal and improvement? If so, should not the report clearly distinguish

between marks and comments related to present standing and those related to recent progress, and also among goals such as subject-matter achievement, work habits, and behavior traits?

But whatever the method of reporting, there is still the question of how to express that which is to be reported. Marks and checks are simple to write but hard to explain.

The single hardest question to answer-and the one for which most parents would probably settle-is, "How is my child doing?" complete record, plus samples of work, helps the teacher to explain Johnny's progress but may still fail to answer this question. teacher, therefore, needs to explain two things to parents: First, how Johnny is doing in relation to his potential, as best it can be estimated (and teachers estimate it very freely among themselves); and second, how he is doing in relation to the class norm.

DUAL SYSTEM

A satisfactory answer to the basic question in which parents are interested really means a two-way or dual marking system. In the elementary school, this system may be fairly simple. It may be enough, for example, to explain that Johnny is doing as well as he is expected to do, although he is below the class average in arithmetic. But in the secondary school, marks are generally needed, and Johnny's status will probably have to be expressed by two sets of letter 1960

grades—one for progress or effort, the other for relative standing or achievement.

This is the dilemma we face in reporting systems: While a uniform system of reporting throughout the nation might eventually be more easily understood by everyone, it might also greatly inhibit effective provisions for individual differences among both pupils and communities. In fact, providing for individual differences has already been adversely affected to some degree by greater uniformity of marking and reporting in high schools.

I believe that the following items are essential to improve the reporting system throughout the country:

Agreement among the teachers in each school as to the purposes of reporting and as to what is to be reported.

Careful explanation to each parent, not only on the entrance of his child to school but repeatedly thereafter, of the reporting system used (and of its relationship to any previous systems the parent has known).

Careful planning with parent groups as to the method of reporting most useful and convenient for both parents and teachers.

In addition, more systematic publication of relevant research findings, of results of experimentation with different reporting procedures, and of surveys of practices by local, state, and national agencies might help to bring about the understanding and spread of good practices.

Equality of Educational Opportunity

Myron Lieberman

In Harvard Educational Review

EW concepts in the field of education have been the subject of as much confusion as the concept of equality of educational opportunity. One reason for this is the fact that the disagreement over the meaning of equality of educational opportunity underlies much of the controversy over racial segregation in public education. But this controversy is not the only context in which it is important to clarify the meaning of "equality of educational opportunity."

A legal analysis of equality of educational opportunity is not the same thing as a philosophical analysis of it. Some people regard the legal meaning of equality of educational opportunity as a satisfying one. In their view, whether equality exists depends solely on whether there are any restrictions imposed by government on A but not on B. Inequalities resulting from social circumstances are either denied or deemed irrelevant to the meaning of equality of educational opportunity.

It is important for such people to recognize that the distinction between legal equality and practical equality is often an issue in fields other than education. For example, everyone is supposedly "equal before the law." Nevertheless, persons who can afford to employ the

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best counsel, hire expert witnesses, and appeal every adverse decision to a higher court are going to be more successful in their legal endeavors than persons who can do none of these things. Legal equality before the law is important and desirable, but it is not the same thing as practical equality before the law

Turning now to education, let us suppose that State X institutes an examination system for admission to high schools and colleges. The examinations are scrupulously administered. A passes the examination, but B, who possesses a greater academic aptitude than A, fails. B's failure is due to the fact that he had to work after school to support his family, that B's home was a poor place to study, and that B's parents never provided B with the eyeglasses which B needed to do his school work properly.

This situation is not altogether a hypothetical one. A number of

states are in the process of introducing an examination system at various levels of their educational ladder. Even if the tests are fairly administered, they will serve to keep racial integration at a minimum because of the general cultural disadvantages which confront most Negro students. Since their parents have had less education than the average white parent, since their homes include a lower average number of books and magazines, since they have less medical and dental care than the average white student, since they generally have a less favorable home environment for study and academic achievement, the rate of failure will probably be much higher among Negro than among white students.

Note that there is full and complete legal equality of educational opportunity in this situation. Indeed, in principle, the situation does not differ from those that arise every day without any racial overtones whatsoever. Most examination systems work to the disadvantage of any student, regardless of race, whose life circumstances are not conducive to academic progress. A state university which utilizes an examination system to determine who shall be admitted is not acting illegally, but its procedures tend to favor students whose backgrounds were conducive to academic progress over students of equal or greater native ability whose backgrounds were unfavorable to such progress.

At this point, it becomes impor-

tant to recognize that complete equality of educational opportunity is impossible. Not everyone can have the same teacher or live in the same home environment or travel the same distance to school, to mention just a few things that could be the basis of inequality of educational opportunity. But most people do not insist that there are no inequalities whatsoever pertaining to educational opportunity. Rather, they mean that some inequalities can be disregarded in judging whether there is or is not equality.

Minor inequalities are thus disregarded in common usage. But at what point does an inequality cease to be minor? How much equalization is necessary before we are willing to say that there is equality of educational opportunity? The answer to this question varies widely from person to person and it is this variation which is partly responsible for the confusion over the meaning of equality.

There is much that could be done to equalize educational opportunity at all levels. Theoretically, we might remove all indirect costs of elementary education, e.g., supply all textbooks, supplies, athletic equipment, musical instruments, etc.; remove all tuition costs from college and professional training; pay all students in full-time higher education a salary sufficient to defray their living expenses; remove all references to race, creed, or color in personnel records at every level of education; place all

children aged two to five in statesupported nursery schools to eliminate the differential effects of the home environment; provide specialized curriculums for many kinds of students—superior or handicapped—who cannot profit from those currently provided. This list could be extended indefinitely.

Some people might contend that we would not have "true" or "real" equality of educational opportunity until all these things and more had been done. Others might contend that we need some, but not all, of these changes. Meanwhile, voices can be heard contending that there is no need to adopt any of these measures—that we already have "equality of educational opportunity."

TWO DEFINITIONS

What, then, do people mean when they say "equality of educational opportunity"? They give this phrase different meanings. It might be said that if they do not object to existing inequalities, they assert that equality of educational opportunity prevails. I shall offer here, in conclusion, two definitions which seem to me to express what people most often do mean by the phrase.

One suggested meaning is that A and B have equality of educational opportunity when they live under conditions which do not provide either person with any material advantage over the other in selecting or pursuing his educational goals. Obviously, there is actually very little equality of edu-

cational opportunity according to this definition. Nevertheless, people who give the phrase this meaning may not realize the range of conditions which in fact do give one person a material advantage over another, hence they may continue to believe there is widespread equality of educational opportunity despite the widespread inapplicability of this definition to actual conditions.

The other meaning which seems to be often given to "equality of educational opportunity" is that A and B have equality of educational opportunity when the material advantages which one of them possesses over the other in selecting or pursuing his educational goals cannot be removed without endangering other important values. This meaning probably corresponds more closely to common usage than the previous one. Because the "other important values" vary from person to person, the state of affairs' characterized by "equality of educational opportunity" also varies from person to person. This definition assumes that people have some sophistication about the conditions that constitute inequality, but there is no doubt that even the persons who have this definition in mind are often unaware of the range of conditions that affect equality of educational opportunity. They also erroneously apply the phrase states of affairs characterized by inequalities which could be elim inated without endangering other values.

Some Implied Principles

The Conant Report

on the

American High School

STEPHEN M. COREY

In The Educational Forum

My comments on Dr. Conant's report are not a summary or comprehensive review of his position. What I shall attempt to do is to identify some of the general principles that, while not always made explicit in The American High School Today, seem to me to be clearly implied.

The first of these principles has to do, actually, with the role of a philanthropic foundation. The principle is vividly implied in the Foreword to the Conant report and suggests that foundations, or their officers, have an obligation to decide what is good for the American people and then use their resources to get accepted whatever

it is they deem desirable. My chief reason for inferring this principle is a series of almost lyrical statements made by President John W. Gardner of the Carnegie Corporation in his "foreword" remarks. Dr. Gardner contends that the Conant report is "a history-making study of the American High School." He claims that the answers given to secondary-school problems and reported in this book will be "good news for American education." He says, ". . . when a man like James Conant says something can be done, the nation must take notice . . ." and that ". . . (the report) deals with matters of fact and its recommendations are specific . . ." He also states, "Dr. Conant concentrates on those improvements in curriculum and school organization which can now be adopted with confidence by any school system."

These statements by the president of a great foundation in support of the 21 recommendations are not to be taken lightly. There is no mistaking where Dr. Gardner's sympathies lie. And where a man's heart is, there may his purse be also. The likelihood that there may be millions of dollars of foundation funds behind a list of specific recommendations for change in Amer-

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ican high schools, assures attention somewhat beyond what might result from the inherent merit of the recommendations.

SUBJECTIVE JUDGMENTS

A second principle I inferred from The American High School Today might go something like this: What is good for American society and what is good for boys and girls is best determined by the subjective judgments of a distinguished citizen. I infer this principle because Dr. Conant's report is replete with highly personal judgments about values and school programs. In respect to methodology or curriculum development, which would include, of course, the selection of "content," no clear, basic idea is given as to how these value judgments of Dr. Conant's were reached. The methodology of Dr. Conant's inquiry illustrates the difficulty a distinguished scientist apparently had applying the method he has mastered in the field of physical science to the study of a great social institution.

The third principle I inferred was that secondary-school curricular problems can be coped with largely through quantitative arrangements. He sets forth his "required program for all" specifying the subjects to be studied and the length of time to be devoted to each—even the year or years in which they are to be studied. Dr. Conant has nothing to say about what specifically should be learned during those four years of English

or two years of history or one year of mathematics or one year of science or four years of English composition or four years of one foreign language. Yet this is clearly the crucial question. Every student of curriculum knows that time spent learning is a poor criterion of curricular quality. Yet Dr. Conant seems to assume that if the correct course titles are used and if students spend enough time in their courses and "pass" them, the curriculum will be a good one.

A fourth principle I inferred from Dr. Conant's recommendations was that the prime purpose of the serious part of the secondary-school curriculum is to teach boys and girls subject matter. Very little was said about the way subject matter is used or about the development of the higher mental processes, or about artistic or creative activity, or the development of physical skills. No account was taken of any probable lack of relation between "knowing" subject matter and "using" it.

LEARNER'S WISHES

My fifth inference from Dr. Conant's report was that in the development of the high-school curriculum the learner's wishes are irrelevant. In the entire volume there is but one reference to the problem of motivation. The central questions Dr. Conant seemed to ask in regard to the curriculum were: (1) Is this content important for adult life? (2) Can it be learned by young people? If the

answers to these two questions were in the affirmative, whatever was being discussed "got in," so to speak.

HARD WORK

My final inference was that for school work to be meaningful and important it must be *hard*. Using difficulty of comprehension as an important criterion of curriculum inclusion—it seems to me—comes close to representing educational bankruptcy.

Regardless of Dr. Conant's report, or the fact that it is being widely read, or the fact that in New Jersey and New York I have talked to a number of school people who insist, sometimes rather pathetically, that "we already have the Conant curriculum," I'm not especially discouraged. The principles about curriculum development and various other matters that are implicit in the Conant report will, I believe, prove to be ephemeral in the long run. I am hopeful that the great philanthropic foundations will return to what is probably their right and

proper role of refraining from trying to reform education, but concentrating on facilitating the study of educational problems.

I feel, too, that in due course it will be recognized that the major purpose of secondary education is not to give boys and girls an opportunity to learn vast amounts of subject matter, but rather to improve their behavior in many respects. I think, too, assuming that our current scare passes, that we will again accept the authority of evidence rather than the authority of a man, no matter his distinction in fields other than those in which he is rendering his opinions.

I hope, also, that before too long it will again be recognized that the most important single fact to be considered in curriculum development is probably the perception by the learner of the importance of what he is learning. And I have confidence that we will return to the basic psychological principle that what is learned is meaningful in the degree that it is relevant to the learner's problems, and not in the degree that it is hard to learn.

- "It's absolutely silly to think that one year of a foreign language is going to do you any good," a college foreign-language instructor told a balky freshman. "I studied beginner's French' in school, but, when I went to Paris, unfortunately I couldn't find anyone who spoke beginner's French."—From Mississippi Educational Advance.
- If you think the younger generation isn't interested in getting ahead, just wait until one of them pulls up next to you at a stoplight.—Jimmy Rause in *The National Future Farmer*.

Classroom Enrichment

ISABELLE CHAMBERS HUSTON and ISABEL C. McLelland

In Education

Oregon, the "Cifted Child Program" places special emphasis on classroom enrichment as essential to the full development of gifted pupils. Here it is believed that enrichment in the regular classroom provides for a broader scope of activities, freedom to follow special interests, opportunity to apply original and creative ideas in planning and development projects, and many experiences in problem

The following are concrete examples of classroom enrichment which have been carried on in elementary schools participating in the Gifted Child Program.

Rapid learners in the primary grades find many worthwhile things to do. Julie, a superior second-grade girl

second-grade girl, was the chairman of a committee to set up a

grocery store for the class. Products, such as meat, fruits, and vegetables. were created from papier-maché and sale signs painted. A study of the different products followed and films were shown about coffee, sugar, cocoa, bananas, vegetables, meat, wheat, and corn.

John, a third-grade pupil, is a creative artist. The class is always interested in the cartoon characters he can draw. He has used his talent to illustrate for the class the different community helpers as they were being studied. These were the mailmen, the firemen, bridge workers, the men loading and unloading ships along docks, people in the school, bus drivers, telephone workers, and city government workers. Finally, created his impressions of what people and life on planets would be like. This was based on search from current magazines which he enjoys reading with his family.

A subject for study in a sixth-grade class was the "Inca Civilization." The chairman of one of the committees is a very intelligent boy, talented in art, creative dramatics, creative writing, and leadership. Under his leadership the committee decided to write a play entitled "The Conquering Incas," This was a serious portrayal of life in an ancient Incan village, which

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(November 1959), 161-63.

necessitated wide and intensive research. Thus the talents of many children in the class were used. Artists painted the stage scenery and the fighting equipment of the warriors; water jars were decorated with Incan designs. Three girls, talented in rhythms, presented an Incan ritual dance; chants and songs were written by a boy who for several years had done interesting things in poetry; a girl who has an outstanding singing voice sang the burial chant.

James is especially talented in music. He made a large chart of a musical staff with removable notes. From this chart he taught the class the value of notes and explained the relationship of musical notes and fractions. He made several studies about music and gave them as reports to the class Two were "Music of the United States" and "Folk Music and Its Effect on Our Peoples."

Discussion of the solar system and galaxies led two gifted children to study the distances to various stars by using their knowledge of light years and then interpreting this knowledge to the class in miles. Charts, graphs, and scale diagrams were made to show comparative distances. And two boys with superior ability in science constructed two small radio sets and made diagrammatic drawings of a telephone, a telegraph, a radio, a television set, and radar operation from which they made explanations to the entire class.

An eighth-grade boy presented a

book report in a very unusual way. This boy has talent and ability along many lines. He wrote scripts, coached other pupils in various roles required to portray scenes from his book, taped a dramatic production complete with appropriate music, and made a disc recording.

THE CLASSIC CLUB

A group of students in one eighth-grade class, who read on an advanced level, organized a club and named it "The Classic Club." They read many of the classics and enjoyed sharing them. And two very intelligent girls chose as a topic for study, "Law Enforcement in Oregon." They interviewed officials at the city hall, the police department, the crime laboratory, the juvenile courts, and the harbor patrol. They wrote their report for presentation to the entire class and included a section on the variance between information published for the public, hearsay, and what they found actually to be true.

In recent years the rapid learner has been coming into his own. No longer is it just "more of the same" for the gifted pupil. Every opportunity is given for him to follow through in interests peculiarly his own. Then, in bringing these interests to his classmates, he is doing more for his class, and infinitely more for himself, than he did in the old days when he was merely asked to help the poorer pupils when his own assignments were finished.

Discipline in the Good Old Days

JOHN MANNING

In Phi Delta Kappan

HF private and judicious use of corporal punishment should have a place in schools," wrote the Reverend Sam Hamill, of Lawrenceville, New Jersey, in 1855. "No judicious Board of Trustees should put a person into a school room, to train and govern and keep in order a company of youth, and yet tie his hands on this subject. . . . Surely it is enough for a teacher to endure the vexation, weariness, anxiety, and toil incident to his position without being thus trammelled."

So it was in the "good old days." The Memoir of William Ellery Channing recounts the discipline which was enforced in the dame school of his boyhood, by means of the long, round stick which stood at the right arm of the Dame's soft easy chair like a "watchful sleepless being of ancient mythology." In the same vein, Sam Seaton, assistant superintendent of schools, New York, could look back to Master Young's Parish School of Old Trinity, where a small ladder, inclined beside the master's desk, was climbed by each juvenile delinquent, and a severe application of the master's cane on the culprit's flesh inevitably followed.

A schoolhouse, erected about the year 1793 in Sunderland, Massachusetts, had, solidly embedded in John Manning is Associate Professor, Department of Humanities and Office of Evaluation Services, Michigan State University, East Lansing. Reported from Phi Delta Kappan, XLI (December 1959), 94-99.

the schoolhouse floor, an ominous whipping post, to which erring humanity was securely tied and whipped by the master in the presence of its classmates.

routine Accounts of the schools of an earlier period are full of examples of severe and often brutal punishment of pupils. But when the actual classroom procedures and conditions are revealed, it becomes obvious why discipling ary problems arose. The education given in a common school was very meagre; the subjects taught were usually reading, spelling, writing, and some arithmetic. No pupils were likely to be at the same stage, and seldom did any pupils have identical texts-if, deed, they owned any text at wrote H. "Our school books," the Humphrey in 1863, "were Bible, Webster's Spelling Book, and [Webster's] Third Part and as for no maps, no globes; thing was blackboards, such never thought of . . . "

FEBRUARY

As for teachers, apparently if a person was over 16 years of age, could read the Scriptures without too much stumbling, write well enough to set a line of copy, mend a broken quill pen, cypher passably, and above all "keep order," then such a person "would do" for a teacher.

What of the conditions in such a school as the Boston Grammar School? Here Henry K. Oliver began Latin at the age of nine under the rod of schoolmaster Pemberton. If we are to take his word, the routine of an urban Latin school was just as dreary as that of a district school. Oliver reached the age of 10 knowing little of the syntax of Dr. Adam's Latin Grammar. Of geography and arithmetic he says he knew literally nothing, and "less than nothing" of the grammar of his own language. Perhaps nothing less than corporal punishment could have aroused the wary under such conditions. Small wonder that Oliver remembered that "we sat, we studied, we idled, or we recited, or we were flogged, as the case might be." And looking back at the job of the teachersmending pens, watching this boy or that, setting copies, answering Juestions, hearing recitations, keepng order-Oliver wondered how any of them 'lived a 12-month outside the walls of an insane asylum."

Yet, and this is worth noting, in spite of these conditions, pupils learned a great deal; Oliver eventually attended Harvard, and later taught, and still later served the

government of Massachusetts well.

Such was the school in the "good old days." But what has brought about the change in attitude toward discipline? Some lay most of the commendation (or blame) on modern educational theory. There is probably some truth in this. But there are other factors, such as the obvious rise and popularization of psychology. One school argues that teachers and educators have adopted and popularized so much of this thought that they must be held responsible. Two other factors, however, are involved: the change of conditions under which schooling is acquired, and the rise of humanitarianism.

HUMANITARIANISM

The latter expressed itself in many ways, not only in agitation to abolish Negro slavery, but also to increase religious toleration, to improve conditions in prisons, to end brutal treatment of the insane, to lessen the incidence of capital punishment, to end flogging in the navy, to set up "charity schools," to get popular education for all, to introduce "natural" educational methods advocated by Rousseau or the "kindly" school practices of Pestalozzi. This was a movement for the betterment of all humanity. The severity of the use (or abuse) of corporal punishment felt this moderating influence of "enlightened humanitarianism."

Disciplinary measures, moreover, reflect the conditions under which schooling is acquired. The geo-

graphic and temporal aspects of the more positive discipline appear to have significance. On the frontier, schooling was utilized to snatch new pioneering communities from savagery, materialism, and uncouthness.

Consider the following example of frontier discipline: A tobaccochewing student was deliberately asked a question by his teacher which was not amenable to a nod or a shake of the head. In two gulps, the pupil "swallowed everything-quid, saliva, and all." Within minutes the subsequent nausea sent the delinquent dashing for the door.

Such an improvisation in disciplinary measures probably reflects the free, adventurous, yet relentless spirit of the westward expansion. But it scarcely reaches the earlier barbarous methods found in New England, which included: the use of solitary confinement within some dark recess beside the chimney, standing on one foot placed within a wooden shoe with sharp pegs projecting upwards from the sole, or having a girl balance herself on a one-legged stool for an hour or so. Perhaps such stern and brutal disciplinewhether East or West-could only have been tolerated within a culture which was characterized by a spirit of selfreliance and by austere repression within the family circle.

As the pioneering conditions

moved further and further westward, it was natural for both life and schooling to become less violent, less brutal, and less individualistic. It would appear, also, that education in the East tended to be used less for assimilating minority groups (and expediting social or economic mobility) and more for holstering the status quo of the social class structure.

The incidents given here, and many to be found in descriptions of the schools of the "good old days," are not necessarily typical of all schools during the ninetcenth century, any more than the recent serious incidents at Brooklyn's John Marshall Junior-High School are typical of all our schools today. Common sense dictates that discipline must be clearly justifiable, that it must not be excessive, and that it should be meted out in good faith, in loco parentis as the lawyers say, as by a wise and judicious parent. Discipline-as practiced in the old days-may now be clouded with our attempts to idealize the past, and we have come a long way since the unfolding of the West. The use of corporal punishment when not combined with more positive disciplinary measures may often have been a too frequent confession of failure. On the other hand, no one doubts that it was an old-fashioned way of preparing youth to meet life's varied problems.

HILDREN are small people who are not permitted to act as their parents did at that age.-Joseph Henry.

Sex in the Modern Novel—A Teaching Problem

HARRY E. HAND

In The English Journal

Many educators believe that the presentation and interpretation of sex in modern novels can present a troublesome problem in a high-school teaching situation. For example, one editor of a high-school reading list warns that titles listed under the heading "For Mature Readers" are frequently controversial for special reasons, one of them being that some of the books listed are realistic in their treatment of sex.

There is little doubt that the problem is a very real one for many high-school English teachers. My own recent questionnaire survey of 290 Michigan senior-high-school English teachers, chosen by a systematic random sampling technique, revealed that they believe "the treatment of sex in some modern novels" is the most serious problem involved in their teaching of modern works. One-fifth of these teachers also believe that "unfavorable attitudes on the part of the community, school officials, or parents towards using modern novels" do exist in their particular schools or communities.

One need not read many of today's novels to realize that in them sex is an important motif. H. S. Canby once observed that modern novels were magnifying "sex out of proportion."

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Whether to allow high-school students to read and to discuss such modern novels which include "sex out of proportion" is a controversial question among educators. One group, conservative in its attitudes, lists several reasons for avoiding modern fiction which emphasizes sex. The first reason is that any novel which discusses physical or psychological aspects of sex may "force" the maturity of students. A second reason rests on artistic and aesthetic considerations. In the opinion of some critics any presentation of the physical aspects of sex is inartistic because it results in overemphasis. A third reason for objection is morality. One teacher and theologian claims that modern novels and dramas have separated love and morality from sex and consequently have robbed it of its "significant vitality." He claims that what is left is a "degenerate mess."

On the other side of the argument stand such critics as J. B.

Priestlev who deny that the emphasis on sex in modern novels will corrupt young readers. Priestlev maintains that even the "rubbishy sexual stuff" of cheap fiction will not harm most students who are faced by the sexual needs of their own lives, and who live in a society which exploits sex for every purpose. He adds that nine out of ten pupils will sooner or later discover sex for themselves, even though their favorite hero is not always voluptuously entangled. In the opinion of such liberals there is no reason why young people should not see through the eyes of modern novelists how sex moves, creates, and destroys in all of us. Besides, they say, many high-school students are probably reading "sexy" novels regardless of any restrictions by teachers.

It is probably best, in most cases, to follow a middle road between these two positions. Yet it is difficult to formulate an easy rule of thumb to guide teachers unerringly in their selection and use of modern novels presenting sex. There are, nevertheless, at least certain general considerations which may help high-school teachers whenever they begin to deliberate on the use of a specific novel for their students.

WHAT TO AVOID

First, works which frequently describe or dwell on physical sex relations should be avoided in most cases. These novels usually distort the role of sex in our lives by making it a cheap plaything which people capriciously seize and throw away as their fancies strike them. The sensational treatment of sex for the sake of sex is evident in certain varieties of drugstore fiction such as the Mickey Spillane series. It is also evident, to a lesser degree perhaps, in the works like Erskine Caldwell's God's Little Caldwell's frank, vivid pictures of physical sex relations, along with his frequent use of four letter words, help to make this novel unsuitable for most high-school reading purposes. Despite a court decision defending the work against a charge of obscenity, and despite Caldwell's claim that he employs his stark realism to awaken readers to deplorable social and economic conditions, a young student's interest would be caught and held by the novel's use of sex and language. For such reasons novels in which sex is used in a sensational fashion, or works in which sex relationships are used in a startling manner, should be carefully examined before they are recommended to high-school students.

As a second consideration, teachers should carefully weigh the advantages and disadvantages of using modern novels which include mature ideas on sex. As one example, a high-school student reading Faulkner's Light in August would need teacher guidance in understanding the role of sex in the novel. The sexual escapades of Joe Christmas represent his desperate efforts to enter the circle of

human society—not Faulkner's attempt to "sensationalize" sex. The sex life of Christmas serves only to drive him further into a desperate isolation. Sherwood Anderson, also, in such a work as Winesburg, Ohio, does not use sexual maladjustment in order to emphasize sex, but rather to emphasize human isolation. Many high-school students would need help in understanding this.

There is probably no good reason, on the other hand, why seniorhigh-school students should be expressly forbidden to read all novels which present some adult facts on sex. If one were indiscriminately to east aside novels simply because they presented mature ideas on sex, he would have to rule out such works as The Scarlet Letter, Ethan Frome, O Pioneers, and many other novels now being used in high schools. He would also have to rule out Homer, Chaucer, Shakespeare, and even the Bible. As we have stated, there is no single, easily applied formula which will always determine the suitability of modern novels which treat sex or some other controversial content.

In arriving at a final decision, a teacher can perhaps gain further insights by asking himself four specific questions: (1) How does the novelist use sex in the novel, i.e., does he treat it in a sensational fashion or dwell on it in a way that might capture a young reader's entire attention? (2) Do I have a plan for discussing the author's use

of sex if the occasion should arise? For example, if I use 1984 in class, I must be ready to help the student to see that sex is an integral part of the novel's artistic structure, a means by which the novelist achieves his whole effect. I must explain that sex in 1984 is not used for sex's sake, or for any other sensational purpose; Orwell is simply trying to show to what degree the totalitarian state of the future might control the private needs and desires of its citizens. (Teachers, of course, should always be well acquainted with a novel before recommending its use.) (3) How mature is the class or the individual reader? (4) What is the attitude of the school authorities, parents, and community likely to be toward the use of a particular novel? If stiff opposition is encountered, as it sometimes is, do I stand a chance of meeting and overcoming it? (Perhaps a correct perspective about a novel can be transferred to parents through the students.)

The chances of a right decision are increased if a teacher at least recognizes all these variables. He is certainly the only person who can answer the questions and make a decision regarding the use of a particular novel in his own teaching situation. The decision is an important one. The conduct of young people may not be directly affected, but the impressions gained from novels are bound to influence the ideas and values of some students.

The Passing of the Teachers College

KARL WILLIAM MEYER

In School and Society

HE "pure" teachers colleges, like the "pure" liberal arts colleges, are gradually disappearing. Next to the community college movement, the conversion of single-purpose institutions into complex units is perhaps the most dynamic aspect of contemporary expansion of higher education.

The state-supported teachers colleges had their origins in the two-year normal schools, the first one established at Lexington, Mass., in 1839. The development of public secondary education and the need for high-school teachers—and with this, the need for more specialization in subject-matter areas—contributed to the extension of the two-year normal schools into four-year, degree-granting institutions.

As late as 1921, of the approximately 165 schools which were ever to become accredited statesupported, degree-granting teachers colleges, only 42 percent operated at the baccalaureate level. In 1941, 93 percent of about 180

institutions were doing so. In the meantime, most of the "normal schools" changed their names to "teachers colleges" or "colleges of education."

In 1921, 99 percent of the existing normal schools and teachers colleges were classified by the U.S. Bureau of Education as "primarily teacher preparatory." In 1941, 96 percent were still thus categorized. After World War II, male students supported by the GI Bill spilled over into these schools, which until 1945 had educated women teachers primarily. Many were interested in programs other than professional education. Institutional and state board officials complied the need to educate more heterogeneous student groups. Diversified curriculums, including liberal arts, preprofessional, terminaloccupational, as well as other types of programs, were established to satisfy the demand. The result was that in 1958 only 38 percent of the 180 institutions were labeled

Karl William Meyer is Dean of Instruction at Nebraska State Teachers College, Wayne. Reported from School and Society, LXXXVII (October 24, 1959), 416-17. the Office of Education as "primarily teacher preparatory."

Another essentially post-World War II phenomenon, resulting in part from improved standards in teacher education, is the vertical expansion of curriculums, leading in most cases to the master's degree in education. Immediately before World War II, some 20 percent of the teacher-education institutions offered post-baccalaureate programs, mostly on the professional rather than the graduate level. In 1958, no fewer than 70 percent conferred the master's and, in some instances, the doctor's degree, sometimes in subject-matter areas as well as in professional education.

By this time, 1958, many institutions had changed their names to "state colleges" or even "universities" to conform to their new functions. Only 47 percent of the 180 institutions still retained the word "teachers" or "education" in their titles. Officials of some "teachers colleges" which are classified as complex institutions hesitate to change to the abbreviated "state college" title, however, fearing a loss of distinction established under the traditional label.

The expansion of the nineteenthcentury normal schools has now reached a point where some of the more fully developed ones have achieved a status which, in summary, includes the following characteristics: horizontal diversification of curriculum offerings to include three or more professional schools; vertical expansion of curriculum to include associate, fouryear, five-year, six-year, and doctoral degrees; establishment adult-education programs; establishment of resident centers and branch universities; enrolments in the thousands; and identification with the "university" function or label.

In general, teachers colleges with all or most of the above characteristics have functioned in the expansion of higher education in two different ways. Some, like Arizona State University (Tempe), North Texas State College, and Southern Illinois University have achieved organizational and curricular maturity through selfpropelled expansion. Other normal schools, like Duluth, Milwaukee, and Santa Barbara, have gained this status by being amalgamated with expanding state universities.

The transition of the normal schools into comprehensive institutions is not without its dangers and problems. The temptation to subordinate the concern for ultimate purposes and values of education to the time-consuming exigencies of physical expansion is great. The tendency toward excessive specialization and vocationalism in these circumstances is as undesirable as it is natural, and must be curbed. These and other resultant problems must be identified and solved if the graduates of the converted teachers colleges are to have a meaningful and lasting influence on society. The challenge of such a study deserves to be met.

Principles and Programs

National Program for Education in the Sciences

HARRY C. KELLY

In The School Review

IIE National Science Foundation was established in 1950 by an Act of Congress. Its central mission, as stated by the Act, is "to develop and encourage the pursuit of a national policy for the promotion of basic research and education in the sciences" and "to strengthen basic research and education in the sciences."

Within the Foundation, the Division of Scientific Personnel and Education has primary responsibility for program activities related to scientific manpower, including education and training.

The words contained in the Act itself, mentioned above, suggest the approach which the National Science Foundation has made to its problems. Today there are few who doubt that the health of our American society and our ability and capacity to assume increasing responsibilities as a world power depend heavily on the quality of scientific education throughout the country. The National Science

Foundation, therefore, is encouraging the development and expansion of programs designed to achieve and maintain excellence in education.

Our program is concerned with two general kinds of problems as they are related to students themselves: motivation and financial support. With respect to motivation, we now feel that our greatest efforts should be directed toward strengthening and satisfying the scholarly needs of high-caliber students who have freely identified themselves with science and engineering. We do not know the future need for science and engineering compared with the needs for the humanities and other professional fields. It, therefore, seems more in the public interest to use intellectual challenge and knowledge of career opportunities for motivation. Science should provide its own motivation.

We need not be overly concerned at this time that not enough

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of our best students are planning careers in science and engineering. As evidence, we can cite many indications. For example, about 60 percent of the winners in the Merit Scholarship Competition are planning to study science, mathematics, engineering, and other closely related subjects. We are, therefore, concentrating our efforts in career motivation largely on such activities as improvement of course content, summer college experience for high-school students, science clubs and student science projects, and the Visiting Scientists Program in high schools.

Regarding financial support for students, our efforts have been directed toward the needs of gradnate students in science, mathematics, and engineering and advanced scholars and teachers in these fields. During the fiscal year 1959, support was provided to more than 3,800 students and teachers in these categories, in seven separate programs. About 2,000 research assistantships are provided through the Foundation's programs of support to basic research. We have not requested funds for undergraduate scholarships in science, mathematics, and engineering, though we have legislative authority to do so. We find substantial evidence that, with the scholarships now available, students in the upper 10 percent of the classes graduating from high school are generally able to obtain financial assistance if it is needed and desired. Even if it should be determined that a federal scholarship program is necessary in the national interest, we firmly believe that such a program should not be limited to science and engineering.

ANOTHER AREA

The second major area in which we have developed substantial program activities is that of supplemental training in science and mathematics. Our major approach to the problem of supplemental preparation for these teachers has been through institutes. The first summer institute for high-school teachers was conducted in the summer of 1951 on a purely experimental basis. The need for this approach and some measure of its effectiveness can be seen in the response. Each year there have been many more applications for appointments than could be met, although the number of institutes has been increased annually. In the summer of 1959, there were 300 institutes for high-school teachers alone and 20 for both high-school and college teachers.

In the coming academic year, 32 academic-year institutes for high-school teachers will be supported as well as 132 in-service institutes, through which classes are held evenings or Saturdays. All these institutes are based on the idea that knowledge of subject matter is basic to good teaching. Several other new and experimental approaches are being supported for the supplemental education of high-school science and mathe-

The Relationship of Instruction to Accreditation

LEWIS B. MAYHEW

In Junior College Journal

HE end result of an institution's preparation for accreditation and the accreditation process itself should be the improvement of instruction. For it is to the end of instruction of the young that schools and colleges owe their reason for being.

This fact is recognized, at least in theory. Very rarely, however, does a faculty preparing for accreditation or the agency granting accreditation look directly at in-

There is agreement in theory, but there is little inclination to bring about the changes which can result in the improvement of education. In order to accomplish the shift several things must be done.

The instructional processes must be opened for the scrutiny and criticism of colleagues, administrators, and, finally, the accreditation agency itself. There has grown up in America the feeling that the classroom is the exclusive domain of the individual faculty member. His salary may be decided by his leaders, his private life may be controlled by contractual agreements or by the sheer force of community pressures, but he has the feeling that what he does in the classroom is his own concern. Now, some of this feeling is warranted in an effort to preserve the heritage of

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academic freedom. However, if the institution is sincere about wanting to improve instruction, actual instruction must be observed and, when necessary, severely criticized. Only in this way can teachers be helped in improving their techniques for dealing with students.

If professors are to be expected to open up their classrooms for observation, they have the right to expect that the best possible methods for observing and recording observations should be developed and used. Actually, the profession is much better off in this regard than it realizes. Useful techniques have been developed and are being used for the purpose.

But not only must instruction be observed as objectively as possible, it must also be appraised and judgments made concerning whether it is or is not effective. Here, again, collegiate education may be in a better position than it realizes. Student ratings of teachers, for example, have been found to be remarkably consistent year in and

year out. The achievement of students on common examinations when studied in relation to the particular teachers each student had also can be of value in reaching a judgment. Even further, there is the simple judging of whether or not a given act of teaching could reasonably be expected to produce the hoped-for results. If a course in German is expected to develop an appreciation of German culture and is conducted by rote drill of German declensions, one can make the legitimate judgment that the teaching is ineffective.

SANCTIONS NECESSARY

Further, if a college is interested in making the improvement of instruction central in its program for reform, sanctions must be applied. The administration should systematically collect all manner of information about the teaching of each faculty member. This would consist of such things as student judgments, student test scores, results of observations, teachers' judgments of their own performance, and even the opinions of graduates and former students. These data should be studied with each instructor and their meanings interpreted. If they suggest need for change, this should be brought about. If after several semesters the data suggest the teacher is ineffective and is making no effort to change, he should be encouraged to move. Even though a person might be an effective public relations person or a respected scholar or a good administrator, if his primary duty involves teaching he should be judged on the basis of his performance in that activity.

This may sound like a harsh doctrine but it appears the only one which can really bring about necessary improvement. Of course, the doctrine needs to be put into effect with a degree of prudence and with full regard for the contractual rights of teachers. But the improvement of teaching ought to be regarded as a higher value than maintaining inadequate teachers in classrooms.

The accreditation agency also has a similar responsibility to accept courageously the implications of a concern for instruction. Examiners should be clearly enjoined to study instruction at first hand and to make their observations and judgments central in their report. Boards of review and similar agencies must then give serious attention to these judgments. For example, a liberal-arts college, well supported, and having a highly trained, productive faculty but with an indifferent concern and performance with respect to instruction, might be considered unfit as an undergraduate teaching institution.

The effort to place greater emphasis on instruction involves questioning some of the assumptions currently held regarding teaching. For example, the small class has been so elevated to a position of veneration that a college with an average class size of

15 is judged considerably better than one typically having classes of 30 or 40. Actually, there is no evidence that size is of any significance in determining teaching effectiveness.

An institution genuinely interested in the improvement of instruction will call into question every one of the sacred cows of teaching before accepting them as defensible parts of the curriculum. And the accreditation agencies should do the same thing. Just consider what kinds of changes could be brought about if one were realistically to examine such a proposition as: "Students spend two hours of study for each hour spent in class." Under the present scheme of collegiate education. this statement is just not so. This means either that it should cease being stated or definite steps should be taken to make it a valid principle.

These are but a few of the assumptions which need to be examined carefully by the institutions themselves and the accrediting agencies.

One further suggestion can be made here for the improvement of instruction. This involves a reorientation of the ethics of the teaching profession from a scholarly to a teaching set. At the present time, the concept of academic freedom rests on the notion that the professor as scholar should be free to

seek the truth as he chooses and to teach such truth he thus determines.

The guardianship of the sanctity of the classroom is, in part, conditioned by this concept. The concept of tenure is similarly rooted in the belief that a life dedicated to scholarship demands the tranquility of mind that permanent tenure helps provide. Since scholarship requires long and patient search for the last possible evidence, there cannot be enforced an urgency characterizing other professions. The relationship of the teacher to his students is also determined in part by the scholarly tradition, He is the master and students have the responsibility for acquiring what he chooses to teach them.

Now all of these are valid conceptions in Western society. But they do need to be tempered with another set of beliefs. The teacher is not unlike the lawyer or the doctor whose first obligation is to his client or patient. It is the wellbeing of the recipient of services mutually agreed on-which decides the action of the professional person. The professor might, therefore, regard the student as the chief object of his solicitude-not something which gets in the way of the professor's own scholarly interest. just this were to come about, giant strides would have been taken to improve instruction.

You can't stop people from thinking, but you can start them.—Frank A. Dusch, in Forbes.

One Teacher's Experience

Teaching Russian in Our High Schools

Agnes Jacques Chadwick
In Chicago Schools Journal

Cussian is easy!" This was the somewhat astonishing reaction of most of my students in two elementary Russian classes which I taught at Hyde Park High School during the past semester. To be sure, these were not mine-run students. Almost all of them were honor students, almost all of them were taking Russian as a second or even third language, and all but one could be classed as gifted. Still, these were American teenagers who had received all of their training in American public schools.

The decision to offer Russian at Hyde Park was well timed. The success of the sputniks was still before the public mind. People had begun to realize that whether we like it or not, 200,000,000 Russians are on earth to stay and that, although their plumbing is perhaps not as good as ours, their achievements in science appear to be first-class. There was the sudden

awareness that it would be wise to know what these people were up to. Articles began to appear in periodicals about the need for an understanding of the Russian language, and it was revealed that while millions of Russians were learning English, only a few hundred Americans were learning Russian.

The situation at Hyde Park School was ideal for the experiment. The idea of offering Russian came from the school administration; therefore I received their complete cooperation and encouragement and was not faced with the problem I have so often had to meet, that of "selling" to the administration the idea of teaching Russian.

An announcement of the offering was made to the students with the information that each student who wished to enrol in the Russian class would have to secure permission by interview with one of the school advisers. No student was permitted to drop a language he was already taking; no one was advised to drop any subject in his sequence, especially in the sciences. Students had to show by their past accomplishments that they were of more than average ability. The result was a group of superior stu-***********

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School Libraries and the National Defense Education Act

JOHN G. LORENZ

In The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

HE National Defense Education Act covers many aspects of education and provides many opportunities for the improvement of Certain of the titles of the Act, however, will be of immediate and vital interest to principals and staffs of secondary schools. In the field of school libraries, Titles III and V are the most important in relation to printed and audio-visual materials, while Title II offers loans to students including those who wish to become school librarians, and to teachers who may wish to attend colleges and universities for education in librarianship. Principals can render a service by making sure that students who wish to receive loans for their further education realize that training for school librarianship is included in the terms of this title.

Title VII is also of interest in this field through its provisions of funds for research and experimentation in more effective utilization of television, radio, motion pictures, and related media for educational purposes. There is opportunity here for a school to plan an experiment designed to discover the relation-

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(November 1959), 9-12.

ships of school libraries to the new media and the interaction of these two factors in the improvement of education.

Referring again to Title III, it is this title which provides financial assistance for strengthening instruction in the fields of science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages. Included in its provisions are funds for equipment, materials, and minor remodeling of space for the utilization of equipment ac quired. An opportunity is provided here for schools to obtain money for their libraries to purchase printed and audio-visual material and minor remodeling of space for housing and the use of these materials.

Title V provides for emphasis in the fields of guidance counseling and testing. Here, again, school libraries can help improve their

school's program by securing materials to be used with students in vocational and educational counseling, and professional and reference materials to be used by the guidance and teaching personnel. To assist in identifying students with outstanding abilities, school libraries can provide professional materials on the administration and use of standardized tests.

Administration of Titles III and V is given to each state's department of education, and plans developed by state departments are approved by the U. S. Commissioner of Education. There are provisions in both titles for private schools, but, for the public schools, approval of projects and disbursement of funds to individual schools or school systems are administered by the state departments of education, under provisions set forth in the individual state's plan. Under some state plans, the opportunities for improvement of school library services are great.

It is important-in planning local projects-that principals have full knowledge of their state's plan, its priorities and standards, and also of local school system projects which may have been submitted or are in preparation. Full use should be made of the knowledge of materials and sources of materials that librarians and teachers have in order that programs in science, mathematics, foreign languages, and guidance be supported by a wide range of all types of materials.

In providing for the gifted and 1960

superior child, a wealth of resources is necessary. Science, for instance, is not learned only from a laboratory or a textbook, although both are necessary for information and technique. But beyond that a student must gain an understanding of the history and philosophical thought behind modern science as well as current developments in order that he be more than technically expert.

FOR MANY AREAS

In mathematics, it is not enough that the student be able to "figure" and to answer problems mathematically: he must be aware of the development of mathematics and the great men in the field. foreign languages, grammar is not enough; a wide range of books in the language must be provided so that the student may learn to read, understand, and speak the language with facility. These are areas in which many materials are necessary to true education and in which the school library and its resources are fundamental.

Planning a local school program under the National Defense Education Act is a challenge to a principal to create step-by-step improvement in his school's program. What can be done to make the school a better one? Part of that better school will be a better library. Growth of school libraries in materials and services must accompany and parallel the improvement of instruction under the National Defense Education Act. •

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

No "Federal Hypodermic."—
President Eisenhower devoted
fewer than 200 words to education
in his State of the Union mesage.
The words dealt a serious blow to
the proponents of federal aid to
education and their hopes for a
measure which would bring federal
dollars for schoolhouses and teacher
salaries.

Said the President: "... The route to better trained minds is not through the swift administration of a federal hypodermic or sustained financial transfusion. The educational process, essentially a local and personal responsibility, cannot be made to leap ahead by crash, centralized governmental action.

"The Administration has proposed a carefully reasoned program for helping eliminate current deficiencies. It is designed to stimulate classroom construction, not by substitution of federal dollars for state and local funds, but by incentive to extend and encourage state and local efforts..."

The Republican side of the aisle applauded twice the President's reading of these paragraphs; the Democrats, not once. But the National Education Association was swift with its reaction. Said Executive Secretary William G. Carr:

"For seven years [the President] has deplored the shortcomings in education; for seven years a substantial sharing in the support of

education by the federal government has not been forthcoming... The people, obviously, must look to Congress, rather than the White House, for the leadership required to secure enactment of the sound principles of the Murray-Metcalf bill for federal support of education, without federal control."

These moves have left the following situations in Congress:

- 1. Feverish a ctivity among Democrats who believe in the Murray-Metcalf principle. In essence, this principle endorses generous federal sums for school construction and teacher salaries, to be matched by the states, "and without federal control." Although the Democrats have a 65 to 35 edge in the Senate and a 281 to 154 margin in the House, there are not enough Murray-Metcalf endorsers in this majority to assure the success of this bill.
- 2. Less feverish activity among Republicans in Congress who feel it will be a simple task to block the Murray-Metcalf bill now that they have the White House behind them.
- 3. More or less calm activity among a group of compromisers who will try to come up with a proposal that will call for token sums of money for school construction, no money for teachers salaries, and a lot of Treasury backing for school bond purchases.

Few in Congress today have any

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illusions that 1960 will be the year for federal aid. Rather it may be the year for study, stall, stumble, and stop. This alliteration has been credited to Rep. Lee Metcalf; it was his way of describing what the opposition to his bill will be doing during this session of Congress. But even this is no safe prediction. All that can be said safely about the second session of the 86th Congress which convened on January 6 is

It will end not later than July 11 -the day the first of the two political party conventions meets.

Borrowing to Get School Buildings.-Lagging school bond sales are the reason school districts are not moving fast enough to reduce their classroom shortages.

So opines Secretary Arthur S. Flemming of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. One way to reduce classroom shortages is to encourage more school bond sales, according to the Secretary. This the Eisenhower administration would do with its own brand of aid to school construction. The central idea of the administration proposal now before the Congress is to help local school authorities buy bonds and to guarantee that the interest on them will be paid-if necessary, by the U.S. treasury.

Prior to formulating his judgment on the school construction plight, Secretary Flemming asked the U. S. Office of Education to look into long-term trends of school

bond sales. Federal statisticians analyzed the 69-month period from October 1953 through June 1959. The result was a batch of interesting facts, some highly relevant to the current classroom shortage.

During the 69 months, the value of school bonds sold (in the 48 contiguous states) was about \$11 billion.

The average value of school bond sales a vear was about \$2 billion.

But the big trouble was the uneven spread of these sales among the states. During the period, 66 percent of all bond issues were concentrated in only seven states-California, New York, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, Texas, and Pennsylvania.

A closer look at the geographical spread of bond approvals shows that California and New York accounted for 27.6 percent of all the sales during this period. By con-Arkansas, Maine, North Dakota, and Idaho were responsible for only 0.5 percent. If you want a quick summary of the school bond sales story, it is this: 41 states are at one end of the scale with bond sales which do no more than replace obsolete school facilities, making little provision for enrolment growth; seven states-those mentioned above-manage to nibble away at the classroom shortages within their borders and somehow accommodate the increasing school population.

The Eisenhower administration believes that the classroom shortages would be substantially reduced by more widespread sales of school bonds. Hence, the administration's commitment to its so-called debt-service measures for school construction. The central idea of the proposal is to advance to the states reserve funds to insure payment of debt service on school bonds. However, the federal government would also buy school bonds which could not be sold favorably on the commercial market.

Opponents of the debt service proposal say it is cumbersome, complicated, will result in federal controls, will aid bankers more than school systems, and will move at a snail's pace to reduce classroom shortages.

Supporters say that a debt service bill for school construction is the only type of school-aid bill President Eisenhower will sign.

Children and Youth.—The invitations are out. President Eisenhower sent greetings to 7,000 men, women, and youths and asked them to come to Washington March 27 for the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth.

Domicile of the conference will be the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; and hosts are to be the President, Secretary Arthur S. Flemming, and Mrs. Rollin Brown—the latter serving as chairman of what publicity releases call the Golden Anniversary Conference. It is the sixth such meeting called by a President since 1909.

Young people will be active

participants. Some 1,000 invitations went to boys and girls over 16 years of age. They will have equal standing with adults in all discussions.

A look at the preliminary program shows that the conference will seek to sum up what sociologists, anthropologists, educators, and other specialists have learned about child life since 1950. A round of forums and work groups will set forth resolutions "which will guide the thinking of the nation for the next ten years concerning more than 62 million children and young adults."

Topics for discussion will range from juvenile delinquency, schooling, health services, jobs for youth, and the effects of technology, mobility, population pressures, and the affluent society on children.

The closing general session will be held April 1, with an address on "Shaping Ideals and Values for the Young in a Changing World." The final business session is scheduled for April 2 when the President's National Committee (the steering group) will set up plans for follow up activities and projects recommended by the conference.

"Cultural Diplomacy."—Back in July 1959, the U. S. State Department created a new Bureau of International Cultural Relations. Six months later the bureau's chief looked at its work and found satisfying.

The bureau's assignment was to bring together all the international

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education activities of the U. S. government under one coordinator. That person today is Robert H. Thayer, a special assistant to the Secretary of State. Mr. Thayer is concerned with Unesco affairs, with President Eisenhower's people-to-people program, but above all with the international educational exchanges. To these activities, Mr. Thayer has given the name "cultural diplomacy."

Mr. Thayer likes to tell reporters that his phrase is not acceptable to some of his foreign-service colleagues. "They think that tying culture to diplomacy is unrealistic. Culture, they say, has to do with relations among people; diplomacy has to do with relations among governments. But these associates of mine fail to grasp the change that has come over the world. Today foreign relations are the relations of people to people."

Mr. Thayer reports that cultural diplomacy has enveloped 94 countries. The cultural diplomats in 1958 (facts for 1959 are still being compiled) were the 1,881 Americans who went abroad and the 4,646 foreign nationals who came to the United States. The Americans who went abroad studied in foreign universities, carried on advanced research, taught and lectured in schools and universities, and consulted with professional and technical specialists and organizations. The foreign nationals who came here followed pretty much the same line of activities. A few examples:

From Latin America came seven presidents of Colombian universities to observe American higher education. The chief justice of Ghana came to study the American judicial system. Several Japanese labor leaders came to analyze our labor-management techniques. A group of Finnish agriculturalists made spot checks of our corn- and wheat-growing methods. Students, teachers, and research workers from abroad pursued their quest of American knowledge in more than 150 fields.

Americans, in turn, went to the 94 participating countries to lecture on horticulture, law, education, and a hundred other disciplines; to demonstrate new methods in engineering, chemistry, and biological study; to teach our national game of basketball; and to share our knowledge of printing, film production, and architecture.

These activities cost the U. S. taxpayers about \$25,000,000 a year. What should we expect in return? Not merely nations with advancing economic and technological systems. Says Mr. Thayer, "It is my hope that through the functioning of cultural diplomacy we can give new impetus to nations in their search for political and social as well as economic growth.

"And let's do away with the term 'underdeveloped country," Mr. Thayer urges. "The United States, too, is an underdeveloped country. The resources and energy of man are not likely ever to be wholly developed."

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENCIES:

Atlanta, Ga.: Ira Jarrell, only woman superintendent in a city of more than 200,000 population, has announced her retirement in July after 16 years of service.

Haverhill, Mass.: Stanley Wright, formerly superintendent at West Springfield, Mass., has been named successor to Charles Whitcomb, now superintendent at

Newport, R. I.

Scarsdale, N. Y .: Harold Howe II, principal of Newton High School, Mass., has been appointed successor to Archibald B. Shaw, resigned, now editor of Overview magazine.

Aurora, Ill.: Norman S. Green, formerly assistant superintendent,

is now superintendent.

West Springfield, Mass.: Chris Grammaticas, formerly principal of the West Springfield Senior High School, has been named superintendent.

Charleston, S. C.: Thomas A. Carrere, acting superintendent since 1957, has been appointed superintendent.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

Tulane University, New Orleans, La.: Herbert E. Longenecker, vicepresident of the University of Illinois in charge of Chicago Professional Colleges, has been named successor to Rufus C. Harris, who will retire in September after 22 years at Tulane.

Albion College, Mich.: Louis W. Norris, president of MacMurray College, Jacksonville, Ill., will succeed William W. Whitehouse on his retirement in September.

Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo: Paul V. Sangren, president since 1936, has announced his resignation because of ill health, effective in June.

Rockford College, Ill.: John A.

Howard assumed the presidency on Feb. 1.

The Cooper Union, New York, N. Y .: Edwin S. Burdell, president for 22 years, will retire on Feb. 29 to become president of the Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey.

Marion College, Ind.: Woodrow I. Goodman, registrar of Houghton College, New York, has been appointed successor to William F. McConn, who has resigned, effec-

tive July 1.

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS:

University of Miami, Gables, Fla.: Mildred M. Landis, formerly visiting lecturer Brooklyn College, N. Y., is now professor of elementary education.

University of Chicago, Ill.: Ronald Wray Strowig has been ap pointed assistant professor of edu-

cation.

OTHER CHANGES AND APPOINTMENTS:

Arthur S. Adams, president of the American Council on Education, has announced his retirement in December 1960.

Jay F. W. Pearson, president of the University of Miami, Coral Gables, Fla., has been elected pres ident of the Association of Urban

Universities.

Ruth G. Strickland, professor of education at Indiana University, Bloomington, and a member of the editorial advisory board of THE EDUCATION DIGEST, was recently elected president of the National Council of Teachers of English

Patrick Carr, teacher at Grove High School, Ill., was the only public-school teacher in the U. S. selected as a judge in the for cent national Maggie Awards the period the periodical publishing industry.

FEBRUARY

Guy T. Buswell, professor emeritus, University of California, Berkeley, has been appointed executive secretary of the American Educational Research Association.

RECENT DEATHS:

Omer Carmichael, superintendent of schools, Louisville, Ky., of a heart attack in January at the age of 66. He was a member of the editorial advisory board of The ED-UCATION DIGEST.

John W. Pence, president of Fairmont State College, West Vir-

ginia, at the age of 63.

Florence Hale, president of the NEA in 1931-32 and a former editor of *Grade Teacher*, 1927-52, in Stamford, Conn., where she had lived since her retirement.

Learning Institute

The Learning Resources Institute, New York City, is a new nonprofit corporation formed by leading representatives of American business, philanthrophy, and education, including nine educational organizations, to improve education through a new "marriage" of the science of the learning process with the technology of modern communications.

Supported by private industrial and foundation sources, the Institute will begin a review of learning research and theory as a base from which to launch explorations of new tools of learning, according to John E. Ivey, Jr., former executive vice-president of New York University, who resigned that post to help organize the Institute. He is now president of the Institute as well as president of the new Midwest Council on Airborne Televi-

sion Instruction, which he also helped form.

The Institute, Dr. Ivey reports, will also devote much of its effort to improved instructional uses for television, films, radio, learning machines, and innovations in the development and use of written materials of all sort.

"We are striving for a breakthrough in education on a scale with those in recent years in medicine, agriculture, and industry," says Dr. Ivev.

The Institute already has taken over administration of the two "Continental Classroom" TVcourses in cooperation with the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. Other special projects being undertaken include: production of a variety of courses of instruction on film or video tape at the elementary, secondary, and college level; establishment Princeton, N. J., of a center for research, development, and demonstration of new technological improvements for the learning process; and provision of specialized educational services to schools, colleges, and universities.

The board of directors of the Institute include, in addition to Dr. Ivev: Oliver C. Carmichael, formerly chancellor of Vanderbilt University; James E. Allen, Jr., New York State commissioner of education; Clay P. Bedford, president, Kaiser Electronics Corporation; Samuel M. Brownell, superintendent, Detroit, Mich.; Milton S. Eisenhower, president, The

Johns Hopkins University; Palmer Hovt, publisher, The Denver Post; Bruce Miller, superintendent, Riverside, Calif.; J. L. Morrill, president, University of Minnesota; E. DeAlton Partridge, president, New Jersey State College, Upper Montclair; Edward L. Ryerson, formerly chairman of the board, Inland Steel Company; W. Homer Turner, executive director, U. S. Steel Foundation; Herman B. Wells, president, Indiana University; John F. White, president, National Educational Television and Radio Center; and Benjamin C. Willis, superintendent, Chicago, Ill.

educational organizations which will serve as constituent members of the Institute are: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, American Association of Junior Colleges, American Association of Land-Grant Colleges and State Universities, American Association of School Administrators, Association of American Colleges, Council of Chief State School Officers, National Association of Educational Broadcasters, National Educational Television and Radio Center, and State Universities Association.

Willis to Head AASA

BENJAMIN C. WILLIS, superintendent of schools at Chicago, Ill., has been named president-elect of the American Association of School Administrators in a nationwide mail hallot.

Dr. Willis will serve a one-year term in his new office, then will

head the association for a year starting March 15, 1961, succeeding Forrest E. Conner, superintendent at St. Paul, Minn., now president-elect. Martin W. Akron, Ohio, is the current presi-

Irby B. Carruth, superintendent at Austin, Tex., was named vicepresident of the AASA in the mail ballot.

Multiple-Use Schools

THE feasibility of school buildings which might be converted to industrial or commercial use at the end of their educational service is the purpose of a new study being undertaken by the New City board of education.

The study will also look into the use of mobile classroom units which could be moved to meet of overemergency conditions crowding. Other problems to be studied include: designing schools to compensate for lack of adequate playground facilities, designing school buildings with space for commercial firms to facilitate the coordination of on-the-job training in work-study programs, and designing needed instructional equip ment to increase the possibilities for the multiple use of space

Educational Facilities Laboratories has given a grant to help finance the study.

Studebaker Honored

JOHN W. STUDEBAKER, U. S. Commissioner of Education from 1934 to 1948, has been announced as

FEBRUARY

the recipient of the 1960 American Education Award, to be presented at the AASA convention in Atlantic City, February 17.

Dr. Studebaker, who is now vicepresident and chairman of the editorial board of Scholastic Magazines, New York, is the first U. S. Commissioner of Education to receive the coveted citation. award has been given annually since 1928 to a distinguished American for some outstanding contribution to the broad field of education. Former award recipients have included: Walter J. Damrosch, Jane Addams, Helen A. Keller, James B. Conant, Harold E. Stassen, and Walt Disney.

History on TV

ULYSSES S. GRANT, Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes, Jr., and Andrew Carnegie will be the subjects of the "Our American Heritage" television shows to be presented on February 21, March 20, and April

10, respectively.

The three plays are part of a series of six one-hour shows being produced this season by Mildred Freed Alberg in cooperation with the editors of American Heritage Magazine. Two Pulitzer-prize writers, Bruce Catton and Allan Nevins, are collaborating in the preparation of the shows. The first three shows in the series were on incidents in the lives of Thomas Jefferson, Eli Whitney, and John Charles Fremont.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

Feb. 11-13, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 11-13, National Association for Research in Science Teaching,

Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 13-17, American Association of School Administrators, Atlantic City, N. J.

Feb. 25-27, American Orthopsychiatric Association, Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 27-Mar. 2, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Portland, Ore.

Feb. 29-Mar. 4, Department of Instruction, Audio-Visual

Cincinnati, Ohio.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

Mar. 6-9, Association for Higher Education, Chicago, Ill.

Mar. 6-10, Association for Super-Developvision and Curriculum ment, Washington, D. C.

Mar. 24-26, National Aviation Education Council, Denver, Colo.

Mar. 25-30, NEA Department of Elementary School Principals, St. Louis, Mo.

Mar. 27-April 2, White House Conference on Children and Youth,

Washington, D. C.

Mar. 29-April 2, National Science Teachers Association, Kansas City, Mo.

April 3-9, National

17-21, Association for Week. Childhood Education International, Cleveland, Ohio.

April 19-22, National Catholic Educational Association, Chicago,

April 19-22, American Industrial Arts Association, Toronto, Canada. April 20-23, National Council of

Teachers of Mathematics, Buffalo, N. Y.

The Great Debate; Our Schools in Crisis. Edited by C. Winfield Scott, Clyde M. Hill, and Hobert W. Burns. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. Pp. vii + 184. \$1.95.

The major issues of our present educational debate are discussed, pro and con, in this anthology of articles from lay and educational magazines published since 1952.

The issues discussed by outstanding critics and eminent educators in this volume include: the neglect of fundamental subjects, the challenge of Soviet education, the problem of the gifted child, teacher training and certification practices, and the cost of school buildings. A final section is devoted to the topic, "Some Proposals for Action."

Among the authors whose articles are included are: Arthur E. Bestor, John Keats. Emmett Albert Betts, Byron S. Hollinshead, Robert J. Havighurst. Harold C. Hand, Irving Adler, Harold G. Shane, Paul Woodring, James B. Conant, Loren B. Pope, and Alvin C. Eurich.

To Try Men's Souls; Loyalty
Tests in American History.
Harold M. Hyman. Berkeley,
Calif.: University of California Press, 1959. Pp. xi + 414.
\$6.00.

"Loyalty tests are crisis products. They emerge from the felt needs of authorities during wars, rebellions, and periods of fear of subversion." So says Dr. Hyman in this history of loyalty tests throughout the long span of American development from colonial times to the present.

He points out that the idea of

requiring allegiance has been championed by a bewildering variety of men, including King George III, Tom Paine, Thomas Jefferson, Abraham Lincoln, Jefferson Davis, Woodrow Wilson, Martin Dies, Franklin D. Roosevelt, Harry S. Truman, and Dwight D. Eisenhower.

Nor is there a clear answer, he states, to the question concerning the utility of tests of loyalty, "for there is in this history rarely an opportunity to know from the records for what use the test of the moment was designed. One can say that most loyalty tests of the past were both failures and successes for certain purposes."

Elementary School Buildings
. Design for Learning.

Washington, D.C.: Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, 1959. Pp. 198. \$4.00.

This, the 1959 yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals, examines the elementary-school building in minute detail and in the broad terms of overall objectives.

Starting with an examination of what facilities the child needs in school, the book goes on to describe what ought to go into the planning, financing, construction, operation, and maintenance of the school building and grounds.

In a foreword, Robert E. Willis, president of the National School Boards Association, observes that many costly mistakes in school construction could be avoided by drawing the principal, teachers, and many community sources into the planning of school buildings long before the architect draws the first preliminary sketch.

FEBRUARY

The Idea of a College. Elton Trueblood. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1959. Pp. x + 207. \$4.00.

This is an intelligent analysis of the problems and objectives of the liberal-arts colleges with special emphasis on a college with Christian ideals.

Dr. Trueblood is convinced that the current controversy about education must be carried beyond mere condemnation to the elaboration and fulfillment of an ideal. He asserts that "the good life cannot be maintained apart from the production of excellent schools and colleges."

Dr. Trueblood points out that the similarity between the title of this book and Cardinal Newman's classic The Idea of a University is intentional, for, while external conditions have changed, the essential purposes of higher education have altered little in the intervening century.

The American Secondary School in Action. Philip W. Perdew. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1959. Pp. x + 351. \$5.50.

This book presents a realistic description of the best modern practices in use in today's junior-high and senior-high schools. The emphasis is on practical topics, such as understanding adolescent psychology, dealing with numerous incidents likely to occur in the secondary school, and comprehending the responsibilities of the teaching and nonteaching personnel of the school.

Five chapters in the book are devoted to the work of the teacher in the school, including planning, methods, curriculum, guidance, and evaluation. The author also dis-

cusses the history of the secondary school in the U. S. and the philosophy and sociology of the schools. The final chapter is devoted to a look at the secondary-school teacher as an individual.

Issues in Curriculum Development; A Book of Readings.

Edited by Marvin D. Alcorn and James M. Linely. Yonkerson-Hudson, N.Y.: World Book Company, 1959. Pp. xii + 420. \$5.00.

The editors have selected for this book the best of recent articles on curriculum development.

The book has been divided into three parts: The Curriculum: Its Setting; The Curriculum: Its Operation; and The Curriculum: Its Process and Direction.

The compilation reflects both the recurring problems of the subject as well as the special stresses of the last five years.

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED:

ELEMENTARY

Basic Dimensions of Elementary Method. George A. Beauchamp. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1959. Pp. ix + 347. \$5.50.

Teaching the Third R; A Comparative Study of American and European Textbooks in Arithmetic. Charles H. Schutter and Richard L. Spreckelmeyer. Washington, D. C.: Council for Basic Education. Pp. 46. \$1.00.

Suggestions on Discipline in the Elementary School. G. M. Jarvis and T. C. Kamatos. A newly-revised, seven-page pamphlet available from Educational Services, Box 1051, Evanston, Ill. \$.20.

About the Captain of a Ship. Haile Chace. About Mexico's Children. M. Richard Marx. About the Engineer of a Train. Siddie Joe of Being Earnest. Oscar Wilde. Volpone or the Fox. Ben Johnson. Great Neck, N.Y.: Barron's Educational Series, Inc., 1959. \$.65 each. The first in a new series of paperbacks, Theatre Classics for the Modern Reader.

Children with Speech and Hearing Impairment: Preparing Work with Them in the Schools. Wendell Johnson. Bulletin No. 5, 1959, U. S. Office of Education. Pp. vi + 32. Available from U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. \$.20.

Latin American Studies: Teachers Guide to Resource Materials. G. Derwood Baker and Franklin K. Patterson. New York: Creole Petroleum Corporation, Educational Section. Pp. 26. Free.

Ten Guides to Good Listening. Ralph G. Nichols. A reprint from American Educator Encyclopedia. Available free from The United Educators, Inc., Lake Bluff, Ill.

Educational Aids for Schools and

Colleges, You and American Competitive Private Enterprise, and Your First Job. Three new pamphlets available from the Education Department, National Association of Manufacturers, 2 East 48th St., New York 17, N. Y.

Driver Education Reduces Accidents and Violations and Policies and Practices for School Safety Patrols. Two new pamphlets available from American Automobile Association, 1712 G Street, Washington

6, D. C. Free.

The Efficiency of Freedom, Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1959. Pp. viii + 44. \$1.00. A report of The Committee on Government and Higher Education, Milton S.

Eisenhower, chairman.

Plumbing Fixtures for Educational Facilities. Stanford, Calif. School Planning Laboratory, School of Education, Stanford University, 1959. \$2.00. Results of a study establish a yardstick for planning school washroom facilities.

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example, to warrant a decision by foundation officials that reading great books is the best road for adults to a general education, or that a fifth year of professional training and internship is the best preparation for teaching, or that Dr. Conant's 21 specific recommendations for the improvement of American high schools are just what the people need, or that teacher aides are the solution to the teacher shortage.

The problems to which these presumed solutions apply are complex ones. For foundations to support research and experimentation in relation to them is most desirable. This research and experimentation should, of course, be directed by the widely accepted operational procedures that permit a line to be drawn between research and inquiry, on the one hand, and propaganda, promotion, or demonstration on the other.

I have a feeling that this point of view is accepted consciously and overtly by most foundation officials, but the forces that operate on all of us to make us impatient with the slow progress of research and experimentation in respect to the solution of social problems have proved to be irresistible to some. This seems to me to be especially noticeable in recent years.

HUNGER FOR PUBLICITY

I have no substantial body to support the inference but my impression is that the past decade has brought many indications of a

hunger on the part of large philanthropic foundations for newspaper and popular magazine publicity. This publicity will rarely be forthcoming from the unobtrusive announcement that a certain group of investigators-distinguished to their peers but unknown to the general public-has been given so many hundreds of thousands of dollars to investigate the relationship between class size and educational outcomes. A foundation official, on the other hand, can have a bang-up press conference to hear him report on an anticipated solution to the class-size problem as a consequence of a grant to "ex-periment" with a "teaching by tape" procedure.

If my impression is well founded—my impression that foundations are increasingly confusing "experimentation" and "study" with propaganda and demonstration—it may suggest a variation of Gresham's law that might be stated somewhat as follows: "The least desirable foundation policies in respect to seeking publicity and making unwarranted claims and promoting favored 'solutions' to complex educational problems tend to inhibit the practice of policies more clearly in the public interest."

As I have said, for foundations to support research and experimentation in relation to pressing educational problems seems highly desirable as policy. Conducting experimentation to determine the relative effects of different instructional methods, or materials, or

MARCH

classroom organizations is, however, a difficult and demanding activity. Especially is this the case if substantial generalizations of wide applicability are expected to result.

Predicting the results of experimentation, announcing a "break-through" in advance, for example, is completely contrary to the spirit of experimental inquiry. Furthermore, this "calling the shots in advance" approach to investigation puts great pressure on the investigators to have the predictions materialize. This, I hasten to add, is more closely related to prudence, of a sort, than dishonesty.

The necessity for careful advance design of pedagogical experimentation is so generally understood by qualified educational researchers as ordinarily to be assumed. A clear and precise statement of the specific changes expected to be brought about by any specific experimental "treatment" is essential for careful inquiry. So is a meticulous description of the new procedures so that whatever different effects are observed can conceivably be related to their "causes."

Arrangements for procuring reliable and valid evidence to determine whether or not the anticipated changes have occurred must be an integral part of the experimental design, To launch some new or renamed or modified program of instructional or training activities, or instructional materials with great fanfare and exuberance and later on ask help from a "panel of experts"—as has been done—to evaluate the program seems to be an odd mixture of zeal for quick results, hunger for publicity, a desire for "breakthrough" credit accompanied by a weak and delayed recognition that someone is asking for genuine evidence of results.

The great general-purpose foundations certainly are influenced by one another. But among them the variations in policy and problemarea emphasis are appreciable. The burden of the argument here is that within these variations-and with special reference to educational practice-the foundations should try to differentiate sharply between supporting research and experimentation on the one hand, and promoting a favored solution to an educational problem on the other. When the foundations do the latter they may not be betraying a public trust exactly, but they can expect that their carefully developed reputations for objectivity and disinterestedness will be attacked vigorously by men and women with different favored solutions but less money to support

ONTROVERSY has always been the servant of education. There can be no education without controversy.—

H. Rowan Gaither, Jr., Chairman of Trustees, The Ford Foundation.

Is Parental Involvement Tustifiable

P.T.A. Reconsidered

VICTOR BAHOU

In School and Society

JOLLOWING the experience of attending a number of P.T.A. and other home-and-school association meetings in recent years, I feel that there is a need to call attention to what appears to be a crucially weak, if not a most vulnerable, aspect of our public-school system. A prominent sociologist has reminded us that the problem of juvenile delinquency should be considered from the perspective of a juvenile in a delinquent society. This line of reasoning also could be applied to the area of public education, where possibly the juvenile may be a victim of delinquent parents and teachers.

Now some parents have very little interest in attending such meetings. I feel that this need not be taken as a lack of interest in the children. It is rather a refle**c**tion of the awkwardness of this ritual which brings parents and teachers together in groups, with the teachers attempting to explain the school programs, plans, and their teaching to the parents. Despite the disadvantages and harmful effects of this mass consultation, these meetings persist in most American communities. The compulsion which some parents and teachers feel to carry on this ritual is seemingly too strong to be resisted, to say nothing of having the whole idea and its usefulness challenged and questioned.

As an example, I shall refer to a meeting at which a member of the before school board went P.T.A. group with three thick and impressive-looking volumes of reports. However, he referred only three or four pages of these tomes, from which he explained that children are taught speech at several stages of their elementary school experience. He aside the volumes and introduced the topic of foreign language study in elementary school. This was an innovation which the principal and apparently favored, faculty though they maintained a thunder ous silence at the meeting. He in

Victor Bahou is a member of the faculty at the College of Education at Cortland, New York. Reported from School and Society, LXXXVII

(November 7, 1959), 446-48.

dicated his anticipation of the many problems which would be involved in such a curriculum change, the careful thought and planning which would be demanded by such an experiment, and the possibility of considerable parental resistance. His weak presentation conveyed the conviction of the speaker that parents had the right and responsibility to oppose and defeat the proposal. He also indicated that if language study were introduced, there would be the problem of deciding which students should be taught the language-all of them or only the "gifted." On a show of hands to obtain a tentative parental reaction, his misgiving and anticipation of powerful resistance were confirmed. Parents asked questions and the discussion went on and on. All of this, however, is of secondary importance. I was, and am, disturbed by something more basic.

As a layman and parent, I do not feel competent to determine what should or should not be included in my child's curriculum. Further, I question the right as well as the competency and, in many cases, the motives of parents who take it on themselves to help formulate, if not completely determine, what school policy should be, both insofar as curriculum is concerned and otherwise.

It is well-known that such interference is commonplace in our public schools and is encouraged by the organization and conduct of parent-teacher group meetings. It

is also obvious that the major interference of this sort comes from that select group of the community power elite. This community power elite exercises much influence over the faculties and is an excellent manipulator of those parents who are either disinterested or readily admit their incompetence before the impressive exhibitionism of the well-dressed, well-mannered, articulate organization men and women of the community.

Much was said at the meeting to which I referred—and I have heard it often at others—about the high standards, excellent qualifications, and competency of the faculty. But is there not something paradoxical or even hypocritical in declaring that we have a competent faculty and administration and then, at the same meeting, becoming involved in making policy decisions which only the faculty and administrators are professionally competent to make? Is this not a vote of nonconfidence?

PARENT, TEACHER DOMAINS

I submit that it is time that parents tend to their proper domains while the teachers get on with their business of education. When have parents met with either the county medical society or bar association to help them determine, if not actually dictate, how these professionals should carry on their respective practices?

Does a parent's interest qualify him for deciding educational policies? Would a parent's interest in

the child's health qualify him to perform a surgical operation if an appendectomy was in order or else decide how it should be performed? What parent would have the confidence to suppose that his interest in his child qualified him to defend the child in court or even to suggest to the lawyer how the defense should be conducted? Some might suggest that, since parents bear the costs of school operation through taxes, such interference is justified. They must be reminded that parents also pay for medical and legal services. As for the fact that school costs are paid in taxes, should we assume that one has the right and competency to tell engineers of a state highway department how roads and streets should be constructed?

Teachers must share in the blame in this unfortunate state of affairs. As long as teachers and administrators continue to abdicate their rights and fail to assert their power, then others, certainly, will be all too willing to do so for them. It is tragic and distressing to observe the almost total submission and subordination of teachers to certain parents and the community power wielders. This pattern of power relations has had the teachers on the bottom of the totem pole for so long that they now seemingly submit readily and even defend their subordinate position. It may be that teachers become afflicted with the same malady which the sociologist, Robert Merton, discerns among bureaucrats.

He refers to "occupational psychosis" or "trained incapacity." This becomes more plausible as we see and hear teachers and administrators masochistically urge parents to participate in such meetings more and more. They have been part of the system so long that they have internalized these values and accept parental involvement as warranted and justifiable.

NOT PARENTAL APATHY

I am not suggesting parental apathy. On the contrary, parents have a definite right, as well as responsibility, to be interested in their children's education. Parents should be able to visit the school and to consult with the teacher as often as is necessary and desirable. Such personal consultation should be undertaken in the same spirit and manner that a physician is consulted. The progress, strengths, and weaknesses of the student can and should be frankly but private ly explored and discussed. Parents, then, are able to inform the teacher of particular problems, in terests, or idiosyncrasies which the child has. In meeting with the teacher, however, the parent must see her or him as a qualified and competent professional consultant If a teacher is incompetent, then he should be replaced or retired. We should stop forthwith the hy pocracy of congratulating teachers for their excellent qualifications and then acting toward them as if they were grossly in competent.

Salary Schedule Progress Uneven

In NEA Research Bulletin

ALARY schedules in effect in the fall of 1959 in 168 of the urban school districts of 100,000 population and over have been analyzed by the NEA Research Division. With notable exceptions, the increases over last year's schedules are disappointingly small.

Summaries were recorded according to the population of the school district, in two groups as follows: Group I, 26 urban districts 500,000 and over in population; and Group II, 142 urban school districts 100,000-499,999 in population. Here are some of the find-

ings and comparisons: The median of minimum salaries for teachers with bachelor's degrees is \$4,113 in Group I and \$4,100 in Group II. Of the 168 districts reporting, 142 also had reported last year. Two-thirds of these in both groups increased the bachelor's degree teachers' minimum salary since 1958-59, but the increase in the medians of minimum salaries is less than 3 percent. Increases in the minimum salary of \$500 or more were reported by 7 percent of the districts. Minimum salaries of \$4,600 or more for bachelor's degree teachers scheduled in 19 percent of both groups of districts.

The median of maximum salaries for teachers with master's deReported from NEA Research Bulletin, XXXVII (December 1959), 102-5.

grees is \$6,900 in Group I and \$6,815 in Group II. About two-thirds of both groups provide one or more salary classes to recognize preparation beyond the master's degree. About half the schedules in both groups recognize the doctor's degree or equivalent.

The medians of highest maximums scheduled for the highest level of preparation recognized in each schedule are \$7,050 in Group I and \$7,125 in Group II. But only 27 percent of the schedules in either group recognize a salary as high as \$8,000 for even the highest level of preparation and teaching experience.

MAXIMUM SALARIES UP

Of the 142 districts reporting both in 1958-59 and in 1959-60, two-thirds had increased maximum salaries, at least slightly, over 1958-59. Increases of \$700 and over at the top maximum salary were reported by 11 percent of the districts. Medians of maximum salaries for bachelor's degrees, master's degrees, and the top maximum increased by percents ranging from less than 1.0 up to 4.2.

SALARY SCHEDULE FIGURES IN LARGEST URBAN SCHOOL DISTRICTS, 1959-60

School district	Number of pu	Scheduled salaries for classroom teachers, 1959-60		
	1958-59	Minimum with B.A. degree	Maximum with M.A. degree†	191113 1124
New York, N. Y.	958,100	\$4,500	\$8,300	\$8,700
LUS Aligeles, Calif	F 0	4,730	7,530	9.000
Chicago, Ill.	452,080	5,000	7,750	8.750
		5,000	(8,750)	(9.750)
Detroit, Mich	280 400	4.500	(8,190)	9.300
		4,700	7,700	18 4501
Philadelphia, Pa.	995 000	4.000	(7,850)	6.500
Daitimore, Mo	. ,	4,000	6,500	7.000
		4,000	6,750	6.200
Dade Co., Fla. (P.O., Miami)	149,939*	4,000	6,200	7 100
		4,000	6,500	(7,400)
State of Hawaii (incl. Honolulu)	100		(6,800)	6,300
Cleveland, Ohio	133,535	4,020	6,300	8,800
		4,500	8,800	(9,700)
Dallas, Texas			(9,700)	6,500
Washington, D. C. St. Louis, Mo.	111,663	4,100	6,200	6,500
St. Louis, Mo	110,800	4,500	7,100	7,300
San Francisco Calic	101.669	4,000	6,600	6,800
San Francisco, Calif. Seattle, Wash. Milwaukee, Wis	96,696	4,770	8,035	8,660
Milwaukee Wis	96,647	4,200	6,800	7,800
Atlanta Co	96.498	4,200	6,900	7,500
Memphis Town	92.818		6,636	c 630
San Diego Colic	92,496	3,636		6,600
San Diego, Calif. Duval Co., Fla. (P.O. I)	90,091	3,600	6,300	ላ ሀሰላ
Duval Co., Fla. (P.O. Jacksonville) Boston, Mass	88,779	4,700	7,800	6 330
Boston, Mass, Orleans Parish New Orleans	96.004	3,500	5,794	6 900
Orleans Parish, New Orleans, La. Denver, Colo.	86,604	4,020	6,900	6740
Denver, Colo. Pittsburgh, Pa.	86,307	3,490	6,446	7 650
Pittsburgh, Pa. Baltimore Co., Md. (P.O., F.)	83,525	4,125	6,975	# 00v
Baltimore Co., Md. (P.O., Towson)	77,597	4,000	7,000	0 820
Cincinnati, Ohio (Calendar year 1959)		4,000	7,740	6,850
(Calendar year 1959)	76,516	4,200	6,850	
Columbus, Ohio (1959) Minneapolis, Minn (1959)	A.M			7,000
Minneapolis, Minn. (1959) Indianapolis, Ind.	75,884	4,150	6,750	r 500
Indianapolis, Ind. (Effective December 10		4,200	7,100	8,000
(Effective December 19, 1959) Portland, Ore.	- 68,683	4,400	7,300	
Portland, Ore	-	•		7,000
San Antonio, Texas Kansas City, Mo	- 68,030	4,300	7,000	6,000
Kansas City, Mo. Long Beach, Calif	- 68,000	3,900	6,000	7,500
Long Beach, Calif. Buffalo, N. Y	67,410	4,000	7,000	9,450
Buffalo, N. Y. Birmingham, Ala	67,388	4,700	8,450	9,400
Birmingham, Ala.	66,250	4,000	6,900	6,900
Median salary	66,158		5,000	5,000
*1957-58 average 3	-,200	2,750	9,000 00 07K	
Maximum salaries not fully in acc.		φ4,020	\$0,010	. ages al
*1957-58 average daily membership. †Maximum salaries not fully in effect extended-service maximums.	in some dis	tricts. Sala	ries in par	enthest

The median number of annual increment steps to reach the maximum salary in the bachelor's degree salary class is 11 in Group I and 12 in Group II. The median amount of the annual increment is \$200 in both groups. Increments of \$300 and over are provided in 5 percent of the Group I schedules and in 7 percent of those in Group II.

SPECIAL SALARIES

Special salary maximums to recognize superior service were provided in 2.8 percent of the Group II schedules, but in none in Group I. Increments beyond the normal maximum to recognize extended service (at intervals of three years or more) are provided in 15 percent of the Group I schedules and 14 percent of the schedules in Group II.

A maximum salary at least twice the beginning salary has long been recognized as a desirable salary objective, one that is in line with earnings in professions other than teaching. Information obtained in this report was used to make comparisons between the maximum salary and that of the beginning teacher with minimum requirements. In the median Group I city, the top maximum is only 71.4 percent higher than the salary of the beginner; this percent is lower than it was last year. In Group II the differential is also small, only 73.8 percent, and it likewise is smaller

than in 1958-59.

A look at the salary schedule

situation as a whole reveals that about two-thirds of the districts reporting have increased their salary schedules, at least slightly, over 1958-59. Substantial increases over 1958-59 were reported by some districts, including the following:

SUBSTANTIAL INCREASES

In Hawaii (classified as an urban district since Honolulu is an integral part of the unified school system) a flat \$900 was added to all salaries. A new schedule in Cleveland provides increases ranging from \$250 at the minimum to \$1,-550 at the master's degree maximum, plus an additional \$900 for extended-service increments up to 36 years of service. The schedule will not be fully implemented, how-1963-64 for normal ever, until 1968-69 and maximums extended-service maximums.

In Montgomery County, Maryland, minimum salaries were increased \$500 and maximums at the master's degree level and above were raised \$1,700-the last \$800 of which is dependent on the recommendation of the superintendent schools. And, when school opened in Chicago this fall, all salaries were \$150 higher than last year. In addition, a new schedule, which became effective October 19, added \$500 more to the entire schedule from minimum to normal maximum salaries, and \$750 increments. extended-service For teachers having completed 35 years of service the increase in October was \$1250.

What Should the Curriculum Include?

Basic Education: What Is It?

MORTIMER SMITH

In A Citizens Manual for Public Schools

A REMARKABLE thing about the American educational scene since the close of World War II has been the upsurge of lay interest in schools. Lay interest, however, has been concerned principally with the pressing problems caused by spiraling population and inflationary tendencies in the economy-problems which are mechanical and financial. These problems remain with us. But today there are encouraging signs that they are being solved in many communities across the country.

While there can be no relaxation in the efforts to find solutions for these mechanical and financial problems, the most pressing business of the moment is to decide what are the curricular priorities and then to examine the schools to see if they are in fact making some things central and others peripheral. In other words, today's important question is: What is basic education and what must we, as laymen and school-board members, do to further it in our schools?

The first necessity is to decide what the purpose of the school is. The Council for Basic Education believes that its primary purpose is fourfold: (1) to teach young people how to read and write and figure; (2) to transmit the facts about the heritage and culture of

Mortimer Smith, one of the fourders of the Council for Basic Education, is Editor of its CBE Bulletin. Reported from A Citizens Manual for Public Schools, Chapter 1, 1-9.

the race; (3) in the process of (1) and (2) to train the intelligence and to stimulate the pleasures of thought; and (4) to provide that atmosphere of moral affirmation without which education is merely animal training. In the words of the educator, I. L. Kandel, the school is the place for "making the child literate in the essential fields of human knowledge."

Granted the above as a valid definition of the purpose of schools what should be a curriculum for carrying out this purpose? When Professor Kandel speaks of the es sential fields of human knowledge, he is obviously not talking about education in the large, about the sum total of experience, information, and skills the individual act quires along the way, but about the necessarily limited experiences which take place in the formal institution of the schools. The school can't be all things to all men all obtain all children. If it works at making them literate in language, mathematics, science, and history (an

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admittedly large task) can it also be expected to teach them how to drive automobiles, how to act on dates, how to be well groomed, and how to have attractive personalities?

GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY

In any sound program of basic education, children will be given an ordered picture of the physical world, including knowledge of the location of the states, countries, and cities. This involves memorizing, which some educators like to call parrotting. Perhaps, however, it is better to have some parrotting of facts about the world than parrotting of adults' opinions about the United Nations or about vast and complex social problems. What is being talked about here, of course, is geography, which, like history, has long since become the victim of that Hydra-headed monster, the social studies. In our efforts to integrate such subjects as history, geography, and civics and to bring them into relationship with each other-worthy enough aims-we have often diluted their content and been left with weak substitutes for the genuine article. Historical and geographical knowledge among young people-the lack of which is almost universally recognized-will probably not improve until history and geography are restored as separate subjects; but in view of the strongly intrenched position of social studies, the prospects for reform are not bright.

Education in any degree in-

volves the ability to grasp and express ideas and this, in turn, calls for a knowledge of formal English, a sense of good usage and style, precision in expression. English is the one subject which must run like a golden thread through the whole fabric of our educational system, from kindergarten to college. The decline in decent use of our native tongue in recent years is the result in part of the decline in respect for English among educators, many of whom contend frankly that correctness in speech and writing is determined solely by current usage. They do not make clear whose usage, but, if contemporary fashion is to be the criterion, let us emulate Winston Churchill rather than Harry Truman, Walter Lippmann rather than Walter Winchell, Robert Frost rather than Mickey Spillane.

ELEMENTARY MINIMUM

To sum up, the bare minimum expected of a normal child finishing the elementary school should be the following: He should be able to read and write with some fluency, and spell, add, subtract, multiply, and divide with accuracy; he should know the basic geographical facts of his country and the world; have a knowledge of elementary science; know something of the culture and history of other peoples and much of his own. Above all, his schooling should have taught him the difference between aimless mental activity and orderly thought.

The subjects which serve to develop these matters constitute the basic curriculum of the lower school but there are, of course, other matters which are the proper concern of the school; physical education, for example (in due subordination to the academic disciplines), and music and art. These last two subjects should probably be approached with the emphasis on appreciation rather than performance, although where performing ability is present it should be developed.

And what about the high school and its relation to basic education? Perhaps the first thing that needs to be said here is that it is a misguided sentimentalism which insists that all students should be urged to stay in high school beyond the legal leaving age. By the time the student has reached 16 (the leaving age in most states), his talent for absorbing education and his attitude toward work are usually established with a high degree of reliability. If he is one of that small minority who cannot or will not learn, or make a decent effort to learn, the school should not attempt to increase its "holding power" by substituting for education a program in social therapeutics. It is doubtful if he will be the better for the attempt, and it is certain that the school will be the worse for the dilution of its pur-

While the high-school student is naturally capable of more judgment than a pupil in the elemen-

tary school and should be interested not only in the appearance of things but in their significance as well, the general principle holds here, too, that the school's task is primarily transmission of factual knowledge in the basic subjects.

SECONDARY MINIMUM

Speaking again in terms of a bare minimum, this should probably be a program not only for the above average but for the average student as well: English (literature, composition, grammar) out the four years; at the very least, two years of history; a year of plane geometry and one of elementary algebra; an opportunity to seleet advanced math; a year of biology, and one of the physical seiences; some foreign languages for all, much for the college bound; music and art as electives; and physical education properly subordinated to the academic program. This, or a similar program, should be the basic curriculum in any high school-academic, business, or vocational.

In the agonizing reappraisal of American education which has been going on since Sputnik, more and more parents and educators coming to accept the necessity a stronger academic program in the elementary and high schools. Some educators, however, still cling to the ideas set forth in the report on Higher Education in which it was stated that "We shall be denying educational opportunity to many

young people as long as we maintain the present orientation of higher education toward verbal skills and intellectual interests."

And there continues to exist that strange quirk in some educational thinking which produces pessimism about the school's ability to teach such tangibles as geography, spelling, and reading, but optimism about the ability of the school to teach such intangibles as good citizenship and wise use of leisure time and to produce tolerant, wellrounded personalities. This quirk was illustrated in a report issued a few years ago by an important group of professional educators which, after stating that the school can and should be teaching a great variety of nonacademic matter, pointed out that about all the school can do in the field of English for over half the students in the secondary schools is to teach them to read newspapers and magazines "reasonably well."

Laymen should not subscribe to this theory that the school can deal more effectively with the intangibles than with the tangibles. It is easier to teach the multiplication tables and Latin declensions and English grammar than it is to teach appreciation of the democratic way of life, or toleration, or any number of other admirable but elusive

matters. It is doubtful if these latter things are directly teachable; if the teacher is a good person, the pupil can be trusted to absorb some of them by example. But he cannot absorb the facts of history, geography, and English from mere association with his teacher, no matter how good a person she may be.

It may sound like a tycoon talking to the office boy, but there is nothing the matter with work. While it is true there is danger in working a child beyond his capacity, it is somewhat surprising that more educational psychologists do not stress the other side of the coin: that nothing is more satisfying and pleasurable to a child or a youth than to accomplish something through hard work which he was not sure he was capable of accomplishing.

In summing up the meaning of basic education, it is well to recall two remarks of A. N. Whitehead, who said that education is a patient process of the mastery of details, and that the problem of education is to make the pupil see the wood by means of the trees. The school should be a place where the individual learns to know the trees so well he will be able in later years, in college or in the world, to see the beauty of the forest.

WE teach students more about how to live with others than about how to live with themselves.—From Vocational Guidance Quarterly.

There Should Be a Meeting of Minds

The Case for Basic Education

GEORGE E. AXTELLE

In Phi Delta Kappan

RITICAL attacks on public schools are nothing new. But both the character and the source of much current criticism are new, and educators ignore it at their peril. Such an attack is contained in the new Council for Basic Education book, The Case for Basic Education: A Program of Aims for Public Schools.

The Case for Basic Education contains an introduction by Clifton Fadiman and 16 essays setting forth the aims in various disciplines. I would like to quote a number of paragraphs from the book, for the authors have stated their cases persuasively. I will not do this, however, because I would rather tempt the reader to get hold of the book itself and read it thoughtfully.

Don't let the criticisms stop you. While I do not think the authors have fully understood professional educators or their problems, there is no doubt that we can profit greatly by giving them a respectful hearing. I am sure the public will, and we had better be able to discuss the book intelligently with the public.

A number of derogatory remarks might be made about this book. It might be said that the contributors have set up straw men which they have easily disposed of; that

George E. Axtelle, after retiring from the New York University staff, is lecturing in the College of Education, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale. Reported from Phi Delta Kappan, XLI (December 1959), 128-31.

the essays indicate little intimate knowledge of what public schools are actually doing; that public schools are so many and varied that it is dangerous to make broad generalizations about them. But this would be to miss the point. The writers are very thoughtful men, competent in their respective fields, and they have a great deal to say that is important to both elementary and high-school education.

Conceptions of what constitutes history, geography, and the languages have changed greatly in past years. The CBE experts exconcepts. press these modern History and geography, for example, while they remain organized disciplines, make use of a wide range of materials from against sciences. The revolt history as it was taught 40 years ago resulted from its barrenness, its preoccupation with the military and the political at the expense of cultural developments. I would

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now agree that history and geography, properly taught, present in a systematic and organized form the fundamental materials which should be the possession of all citizens, if they are to make competent judgments about public affairs (or their own for that matter). The CBE objection to social studies is, I think, well taken. They do lack a systematic structure, encouraging consideration of contemporary matters without the equipment to do so competently.

The systematic disciplines concerned with broad principles as well as with facts provide a student with highways that connect with a wide range of experience, whereas discreet data, viz., merely contemporary problems, are apt to be blind alleys. In like manner, I am inclined to agree with the authors' criticism of core programs. Let me say, however, that I think these programs served a purpose at the time they were developed.

The book makes a powerful case for the study of both American and world history. I cannot see how anyone can be an intelligent citizen without them, especially if treated in the manner suggested by the authors. An equally powerful case is made for composition, literature, and the languages, both classic and modern.

PRACTICAL SUBJECTS

The Fadiman întroduction chides professional educators for their concern with "adjustment" and "the practical." Yet in practically every

essay a discipline is justified in practical and adjustment terms. The simple fact is that both of these terms are subject to misunderstanding. Adjustment may be narrow and specific to some immediate situation. It may also be as broad and fundamental as life itself. The same is true of "the practical."

It seems appropriate here to refer to Dewey. His critics-and his followers also-were sometimes misled by his emphasis on the practical, and his concept of adjustment. The term practical meant much the same for Dewey that it did for Aristotle. Dewey wrote in 1916, in Essays in Experimental Logic, "Of all forms of practice, theory is the most practical." He emphasized the idea that when experience is so organized its meanings are funded and may be brought to a focus in dealing with a problematic situation.

Dewey would say, in fact, that the most practical thing a school could do would be to develop a disciplined, intellectual method. Close to this would be mastery of one or more organized bodies of knowledge and familiarity with others.

TIME FOR NEW LOOK

On this point there should be no serious argument between professional educators and contributors to the CBE volume. Social pressures have brought so many accretions into the school that it is time for a new look at the curriculum—

and indeed educators are taking one now. It has ceased to possess an organic unity and focus. Much of what is already in the school would be better organized within the older disciplines. However, these disciplines must be taught with a much clearer awareness of the contemporary world, and their relevance to it, than is often the case. They must be taught by much better trained teachers with much greater thoroughness and, often, in very much smaller classes.

It is time for professional educators and the Council for Basic Education to recognize that they belong to the same army. There is no turning back to the formal education of 40 years ago. The Council must recognize that professional education has made significant contributions to educational practice. Were American education to turn its back on the developments of the past generation, it would lose much of its vitality. However, our times call for a reassessment of our schools and of professional education.

I repeat, our world demands a much higher quality of education from the people of a democracy. The developments within the several disciplines themselves during the past generation give them a claim to a prominent place in the curriculum. They now have a richness and a relevance to life, an organized structure. If well taught by competent teachers under appropriate conditions, they promise to yield most if not all the

values which professional education espouses.

MEETING OF MINDS

I can think of few things more fortunate for our schools than for scholars such as these authors to work with curriculum people in designing a new approach to the curriculum of both the elementary and secondary school. I would like to see scholars work with schools so that they might get a more intimate feeling for the problem. They should make a more thorough study of professional thought in terms of actual schoolroom practice. At the same time, it seems clear that, if we are to have teachers competent to teach the disciplines as they suggest they be taught, professional training must become a strictly graduate study. There must be time for students to achieve such a mastery of their field that they can make it illuminate the contemporary world.

American education, and the American people, would be admirably served if there should develop a meeting of minds between these two groups. Both are concerned with the same ends: the cultivation of a citizenry with the judgment, understanding, and taste necessary to build a great civilization. have not solved all the economic problems, but we have gone far enough that we can afford the quality of public education that befits a great people. ready for a giant step. Together, we can take it.

Comments on a Decade of Televiewing

PAUL WITTY

In Elementary English

HERE are today many Amercan children, who, like 11-yearold Carol, cannot remember a time when television was not a vital part of their lives. It was Carol who said, "The whole thing started before I was born."

It is a decade since this author and his assistants began their annual studies of TV. Each year since 1949, we have submitted questionnaires to more than pupils, their teachers, and their parents. Many people in the Chicago area had purchased TV by the spring of 1950. Inquiry then revealed that 43 percent of the elementary-school pupils had TV sets at home. The percentage rose to 68 in 1951; 88 in 1952; 97 in 1957. In 1959, 99 percent indicated that they had TV at home. And in 1959, 31 percent indicated that they had two TV's at home, 7.5 percent had three or more sets, and 3 percent indicated that they had color TV at home.

From the very first children have followed this electronic Pied Piper and have expressed their satisfactions vividly. Not long ago,

Sandy, who is in the second grade, wrote:

I like TV. It's nice to have around the house. Because brother and I can watch it. have a nice time watching it too. I watch cowboys sometimes. Our family loves it. Our cat and fish love it too. If I did not have a TV I would not be so happy.

TV has continued to maintain its popularity as the children's favored leisure activity. In fact, it appears to be the leisure pursuit that consumes the largest amount of time of children and adults. In Business Week it is stated:

. . . Last year in homes with television sets—three quarters of all the families in the countrymore total time was spent watching television than in any other single activity except sleep.

Ten years, now, have passed since TV came to captivate chil------

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dren and to provide probably the most time-consuming form of entertainment ever known. What are the results? What have we observed in the studies we have made over this period?

First, although changes have taken place in the favorite programs of the children of all ages, there is still indication that parents and teachers do not approve many of the children's favorite programs.

Over the years, the emphasis in parental objections of TV has altered. Parents at first repotred that children's vision was suffering as a result of televiewing. Children were sleeping less, they said, and were inclined to be more nervous and disturbed. The amount of recreation of other kinds was said to be decreasing, too. As the years have gone by, the frequency of this type of complaint has decreased although criticisms and comments concerning the quality of programs and the frequency of westerns persist.

Today parents point out that TV does not harm their children's eves if the set is focused properly. Our studies also suggest that more and more parents are trying to arrange proper conditions for televiewing and are encouraging rest periods and change in activities.

The outdoor recreation of some children is undoubtedly influenced unfavorably in some cases. But on the average there has probably peen little adverse influence on it.

Our earlier studies did reveal

some reduction in hobbies and in outdoor activities, but later investigation did not fully confirm the earlier findings. The inference to be drawn from later investigations is that while children's interests of today are different from those of pre-TV days, televiewing has not interfered greatly with participation in outdoor sports and other forms of recreation. But it should be kept in mind that the situation concerning recreation was by no means ideal or even desirable before TV. Thus, in several studies we found that among their leisure pursuits pupils ranked high other spectator activities such as: going to the movies, listening to radio, riding in ears, watching sports. Now they go to the motion picture theater less often, and, at the elementary-school level, spend less time with radio and somewhat less time on the comics.

BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS

In our studies both teachers and parents continue to report behavior and adjustment problems associated with TV-such problems as neglect of homework, meal-time disturbance, increased nervousness, fatigue, eye-strain, impoverishment of play, disinterest in school, and reduction in reading. According to present reports in 1959, the problems most frequently mentioned were arguments over choice of program, meal-time and bedtime disturbance, and interference with studying.

It has been claimed that chil-

dren are now reading less because their time is monopolized by TV. Let us examine the results of our studies. Parents and teachers included in our surveys continue to set forth their conviction that many children read less than they did before TV. The number of such statements, however, has decreased steadily since 1950. And among the reports of pupils-the relatively small number who now can recall a time without TV-about half state that they read more now, while the other half state that they read less.

READING INCREASED

Although skeptics anticipated that the amount of reading would decrease, this has not been the case nor has the quality of reading suffered greatly. In fact, statements of librarians suggest that the quantity of children's reading has actually increased and that the quality has perhaps improved. Thus, Arnold L. Lazarus asserted in the January, 1956, issue of Educational Leadership: ". . . Whether because of TV or in spite of it, youngsters (both elementary and secondary) are reading more than ever, according to unanimous reports of librarians (school and public)."

What are additional results of TV viewing after 10 years? Other beneficial effects may be noted in the increased information some children derive from TV. Anyone who observes children closely may note instances of TV's constructive influence. Robert Goldenson, for

example, included in an article in Parent's Magazine a remarkable composition by a 10-year-old boy who described with a high degree of accuracy a heart operation on a five-year-old girl. This composition was based not on anything the boy had read or studied in school, but on a single five-minute sequence seen on TV. Many other children, like this boy, are learning from TV much about science, the lands and cultures of other peoples, and the satisfaction to be found in books.

These acquisitions and attitudes offer a glimpse of what TV at its best can mean to children, especially when individual guidance and encouragement are used to sustain interests initiated by TV. TV presents and provides great opportunities for parents and teachers to promote educational and avocational interests of boys and girls.

But there are some less reassuring facts which should be recognized. Despite the findings which suggest that the average amount of reading has increased somewhat today as compared with five or 10 years ago, it should be pointed out that many pupils read less now. Moreover, there really should be a marked gain in the amount of reading by children since books are now more plentiful and library facilities are being constantly expanded. It is regrettable, too, that many very bright pupils read little and that interest in reading is not high among many adults today.

It is unfortunate, too, that good children's programs are few in number and many are of inferior quality. To be deplored, also, is the low esteem in which educational programs are held, and the lack of imagination and ingenuity shown in the development of many of these offerings.

A new low is also set by some of the programs calculated to win favor with children and youth. Producers have surfeited us with shock and crime programs and have produced an almost endless succession of westerns. Some children's programs are repetitious and lack taste or charm. There are, of course, a few good children's programs for which we can be grateful. However, there is need for a greater use of imagination and resourcefulness in the production of programs.

During the past 10 years, we have witnessed the development of children's strongest interest—televiewing. Our responsibility is great in guiding and utilizing this interest so as to gain the maximum benefits. Despite the undeniable potential values of televiewing in extending and enriching education, there are some aspects of this ubiquitous activity which should be

carefully considered and their dangers recognized.

It is clear that home and school guidance is necessary if children are to choose programs with ever increasing discrimination. Children need guidance, too, in achieving a balance between the time spent in sedentary activities, such as televiewing, and that devoted to other activities in and out of school. Most TV programs are viewed as entertainment. But there are some that can be regarded as educational and can be related to worthwhile learning both at home and in the classroom. These programs should be recognized and utilized fully. Moreover, there are some programs which provide not only good entertainment but also worthwhile information. Children should be encouraged to select these programs.

Finally, parents and teachers should recognize the fact that effective motivation can be fostered by associating interests engendered on TV with desirable forms of home and school endeavor. In this way, a desire to achieve may be strengthened and greater effort may be given to the attainment of worthy goals.

ORE British parents think television is good for their children than think it is bad, according to a recent survey published by Britain's Independent Television Authority. Although the majority of parents approve television, many think there should be moderation and guidance in viewing. Parents who say that television has made eight to one those who say family life would be better without it.

Fair Treatment -

The Right to Personal Consideration

In Conditions of Work for Quality Teaching

HE common belief of American society is that every person is entitled to fair and humane treatment; this principle is accepted regardless of the group of which he is a member. Because of the close relationship between teachers and the homes and children of the nation, there is every reason for special consideration being given to the members of the teaching profession.

The nation has come a long way in the matter of employer-employe relationships, and teachers, in some instances, were early beneficiaries of forward-looking employment Policies. There are enough remaining school situations, however, where local procedures are inconsiderate or unfair, that it is still necessary to seek improvement in personnel administration through local policy development.

Modern personnel procedures are needed in all school operations. Large or small, every school system has to discharge the basic functions of good personnel administration. Whether one administrator or a complex administrative staff attends to this duty, desirable conditions of work require personnel needs be determined, qualifications be established, and effective recruitment and selection of staff be carried

A modern personnel program, by maintaining desirable conditions of employment, makes possible the retention of a qualified staff. With regard to eligibility, seplacement. evaluation, lection. and adjustment in employment, thoughtful consideration and fair treatment is shown to individual staff members. Systematic attention is paid to such matters as emplove counseling, supplying information with respect to vacancies promotional opportunities, maintaining channels of communication within the school system, and providing for orderly termination of services. An adequate program assists each employe to develop his abilities to the utmost. And, in those inevitable situations where human relationships become

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strained, the modern personnel management program offers the means for the presentation and ad-

justment of grievances.

The planning of a thoughtfully designed personnel program should include staff participation in every practical way. The administration of the personnel program is a challenging responsibility which calls for skill and special knowledge. The personnel department may be considered successful when the school system enlists and retains a congenial and mutually respected faculty of professional colleagues.

CERTAINTY REDUCES FRICTION

A major cause of friction within the staff of a school system arises from uncertainty about procedures and policies applying to personnel matters. Personnel policies, cooperatively developed by school board and staff, should be well defined, in written form, and they should be available to every staff member. And it is important that such written policies be inclusive of all the professional positions of the system. The elimination of administrative titles, for instance, not only can lead to suspicion of preference but actually constitutes a lack of consideration for the administrator. Superintendents, principals, supervisors, and others, no less than classroom teachers, need to know the policies on dismissals, promotions, evaluation, salary advancement, retirement, and vacations that are applicable to them.

Personnel policies in regard to

employment should not be designed in any way to exclude employes who have the competence to perform the duties of the position for which they are applicants. All school systems should be willing to include beginning teachers on their staffs. All schools are entitled to career teachers, and transiency in teaching should not be characteristic of rural schools merely because city systems have the drawing power and the money to employ the experienced teachers. Prohibitions against employment on the basis of age, sex, race, religion, residence, or marital status should be eliminated from em-

ployment policy.

The value of systematic plans for inducting new teachers into the school system has been proved, and such plans should be a part of school system policy. The procedures will, of course, be adapted to the size and complexity of the local situation. But the general policy should be to avoid the "sink or swim" attitude toward new personnel. Classroom teachers already in the system share a professional responsibility with school administrators for helping new teachers to become efficient and happy members of the staff. Among the items which might be included on a list of induction objectives would be to provide: housing assistance, knowledge of the community, acquaint ance with the staff, interpretation of the school system's philosophy and rules and regulations, aid in understanding one's role in the

school, and opportunities for establishing cordial relationships with fellow teachers and supervisory staff. Objectives of this kind lend themselves to wide staff participation, involving not only the central administration but also the personnel in individual schools.

Special study of the problems of new teachers has given valuable elues to the principles and practices most important in successful orientation. There must be a bridge between previous training and experience and local practice. The program of the new teacher should not degenerate into a catch-all for pupils and classes that other teachers do not want; nor should it be made of those classes left over after other teachers' programs have been completed. The new teacher should be given work in the subjects of his major preparation; he should be given the minimum number of daily classes; and he should not be given the "problem pupils." The teaching staff should endorse a policy of lighter loads for the beginning teacher for his initial year.

During the years of the teachers' active service, many needs, relationships, and problems arise which require the development of sensible, fair, and constructive personnel policies. The area ranges from records to retirement, from selfimposed restraints to reasonable instructional and personal freedoms, and from the uniqueness of individual rights and obligations to the requirements expected of

the entire staff. For example, a written contract, even in those states having tenure laws, is believed advisable by many authorities to provide a good basis for understanding. And the professional staff should be protected from unwarranted dismissal, demotion, or transfer. The professional staff members should also have the same personal freedoms granted to citizens generally. Personnel policies also should provide procedures for settling individual grievances, and the personnel plan must show consideration for the health and comfort of the staff, including rest periods, lunch periods, and free time.

A modern personnel program, it should be obvious, must be based on systematic and accurate records. Whether school systems are large or small, good personnel records are important. Teachers want assurance that the records relating to their qualifications, preparation, salary, professional growth, and service are kept systematically and in confidence by school officials. School officials, in turn, need the same information as the basis for their personnel decisions and actions. Records are of limited value unless they are kept up to date and made readily available to those who should use them. The record plan must be no more ambitious than the school system is able to manage effectively, but it is an important aspect of personnel policy-

that there agreement After

should be fair consideration for individual staff members, there is still the problem of the best means for accomplishing this objective. It is not realistic to presume that each staff member can and will look out for himself. The idea that each person can compete on an individual basis for status and well-being was disproved long ago. Such an arrangement would be impractical as well as uneconomical for both the staff and the school board. Matters of mutual concern have to be solved on a cooperative basis; hence the need for professional organizations.

The local structure of professional organizations is variable, to meet local needs. Some groups organize a single, all-inclusive, professional association; others create departments within the all-inclusive association; still others prefer separate classroom teacher organizations. The important point is that staff members must have a recognized professional spokesman to represent them before the board or community. For this reason the establishment of a strong professional association in the field of education and the maintenance of its membership should be encouraged by the board and the community as a necessary and desirable development.

PARADOX ARISES

There arises from time to time the paradox of mutual dependence of classroom teacher and school administrator on the one hand, and

of their independence on the other. There are times when classroomrecognize teacher groups must that administrators, even though sympathetic with what the association desires, cannot endorse every proposal it presents. There will be times when the administrators must recognize that the classroom-teacher group is warranted in expressing an independent view on personal or professional matters. These differences should be reconciled within the professional association if at all possible; if agreement cannot be reached, then each group should present its without ill will.

Fair play and personal consideration within a school system must have the support of public opinion within the community. Most members of the general public favor education and respect the school staff. They may criticize the schools from time to time, but classroom teachers and school administrators are wise to believe sincerely citizen interest in and desire to improve the schools. Classroom teachers ought to attend school-board meetings with some regularity so as to understand and appreciate this service given by citizens. They must learn to accept sincere critiwithout resentment. teaching profession is in a unique position to show appreciation for public support of schools and instruct America's children as to the meaning of the public school in the life of the nation and in their own lives.

Dad May Have the Information

Classroom Interview by Telephone

ELIZABETH M. GRIMES

In NJEA Review

SILL'S father is president of a machine-tool company, Marjorie's is a truck driver, Judy's owns a small retail store, Jan's is a lawyer, Dan's is a Democratic committeeman, Joe's is on the town council, Anne's is an importer, Ted's is a bank teller, and Jim's, a policeman. What a wealth of information and experience there is here-far beyond the ken of teachers, textbooks, or school library facilities! Yet this is but a fraction of the knowledge held by the parents of any senior class. Too seldom is it tapped for the courses where such enrichment is appropriate.

All of us do try to use this knowledge. "Ask your dad what he thinks, Jack. He'll know from his

work at the bank," is a common way to do it. Having Jack's father come to talk to the class would be the best way were it not for the difficulty of fitting it in his busy schedule. Most parents are very gracious and willing to help when approached by the students, but it seems an imposition to ask them to come to the school or to request the time and preparation required by the taped interview.

"Let's call him on our phone."
This is the method we use in our 12th-grade social-studies course at Glen Ridge High School. It is a plan that has resulted in spontaneity, convenience, and a wider use of a classroom telephone. We have an amplifier which enables the class to hear the conversation, two jacks, an office switch which cuts us in to one of the central office telephone lines, a "beeper" and a tape recorder—used if other classes are to hear the conversation later.

The total installation charge was \$36.90 and the monthly charge \$6.55. The latter figure could be reduced to \$4.55 if it were possible to make one of the office phones portable. Toll charges are kept at a minimum, though occasionally they seem warranted. On the whole, the cost is reasonable in relation to results.

Elizabeth M. Grimes is head of the Social Studies Department, the Ridge High School, New Glen Ridge High School, New Jersey. Reported from NJEA Re-Jersey. XXXIII (December 1959), view, XXXIII (December 1959), Whenever possible those interviewed are parents. It is necessary to obtain from the students—early in the year—definite data which indicate what kind of a gap in our study Dad might be able to fill. Sometimes there is no parent who meets the requirements. We had none who were Congressmen, or state legislators, or labor leaders. Yet the classes wished to phone these men. Letters from students brought quick response in every case, even from strangers, and we were able to set up the interviews.

Usually a specific time is planned in advance with the person we wish to interview. How convenient this arrangement is for him was often illustrated. "But I couldn't possibly come to the school at 2 o'clock Monday. I have a management meeting at 2:30... Oh, you mean just over the phone from my own desk? That presents no problem. I'll be glad to do it."

A few, who somehow believed high-school students might embarrass them by their questions, were a bit reluctant at first and asked for samples. When it was apparent from these that they were to be asked only for their opinions and the knowledge gained from their daily experience, all reluctance vanished.

Our calls are made only when directly related to the unit at hand. We have never called anyone without prior study of the matter, since our need for an interview is a product of that study. The interviewer, who is always a student,

must be familiar enough with the subject to discuss it intelligently. Questions to be asked have been submitted by members of the class and sifted by a committee in advance. Consequently they may be penetrating. "Is subliminal advertising morally defensible?" caused a good deal of hedging by an advertising man. "Do you approve of the Federal Reserve's tight money policy?" gave us a thoughtful answer from a banker.

Questions inevitably include the naive, too. "What do you have to do to start a small business?" brought a laugh from a retail store owner who said, "Well, son, I'd say the first thing is to get a loan."

In addition to prepared questions, spontaneous ones are encouraged. As the conversation develops, the interviewer should not stick too closely to his plan. Quite naturally an answer may draw impromptu questions from the interviewer, other members of the class, or the teacher.

WIDENS HORIZONS

There is no doubt that through this device student horizons were broadened. Their eyes were big as they heard the vice-president of a company with resources of over \$14 billion speak of anything up to \$6 million as a "small loan" and say that they keep about \$200 million in the bank "just to run the company" from day to day. But they were just as intent when the school superintendent was asked to explain why the price of milk

in our own cafeteria was at its present level, and what the cost of a new gymnasium would be per family tax bill.

To "Is advertising worth all the money spent?" the reply started with "I prefer to use the word invested" and went on to present a viewpoint novel to these young people. When an importer talked casually of tramp steamers, African and Asian ports, average elapsed time from order to delivery, and how Belgian steel wire can undersell American, he spoke a magic tongue. And the students were very attentive as a Congressman told of his typical day, of the

favors his constituents expect, and how much his mail influences his actions. It was to be expected that he would take the chance to speak of the responsibilities of these listeners as future voters.

Though still in the experimental stage, our phone interview plan has been a success. It has stimulated student interest, varied routine, helped to bridge the gap between books and experience, and utilized parental talents with minimum effort. If such a device is used with discrimination, its potential is limited only by the imagination of the teacher and the students.

• After a police sergeant had given a talk on safety at the local school, one little girl described curb drill as follows: "You go to the edge of the curb and stand there. First you look this way, then that way, then this way again. If you see a big space coming along, then you can cross."—Winifred Firth in The Christian Science Monitor.

• The school boy's assignment was to illustrate the song, "America the Beautiful." The teacher recognized the flag, the map, the "purple mountains"—even the young artist's pictorial interpretation of "sea to shining sea." But she couldn't fathom the airplane in one corner, covered with red and yellow balls. "That," explained the youngster, "is the fruited plane."—From Education U. S. A.

"When I retire," said one college president, "I would like to be superintendent of an orphan asylum. Then I wouldn't get letters from parents." "That's not a bad ambition," said the second. "But when I retire I want to be a warden of a penitentiary—the alumni never willingly to come back to visit."—From Mississippi Educational Ad-

vance.

That lump on the side of Willie's head," little Willie's sister informed the teacher, "that's where Daddy helped him last night with his arithmetic lesson."—From Newsletter, Oklahoma State School Boards Association.

John Dewey and American Social Thought

JOSEPH L. BLAU

In Teachers College Record

HE 92 years of John Dewey's life, from 1859 to 1952, encompassed a multitude of changes in American life and American society. An important element of his social philosophy was his attempt to evaluate these changes that had come about in American life; to separate those that were inevitable and necessary accompaniments to the growth of a more democratic civilization from those that were merely accidental by-products of change, but had persisted because they contributed to the preservation of the advantages of special interest groups. Dewey's interest in social theory was one of the earliest phases of his thought to emerge, and this concern persisted to the end of his life.

John Dewey's social philosophy was liberal, not in the sense of adherence to any specific liberalism, but in its concern for the liberation of whatever potentialities individual men might demonstrably have. He insisted that "government, business, art, religion, all social institutions have a meaning and purpose. That purpose is to set free

and to develop the capacities of human individuals without respect to race, sex, class, or economic status." In saying this, Dewey was describing social institutions as educative in the broadest sense that can be given to that term.

To Dewey there was a continuity between his educational philosophy and his social theory, and in both spheres of his concern the test of value was a pragmatic test, the extent to which each "every individual into the full stature of his possibility." Among the many meanings of the term "democracy," Dewey found stressed a moral meaning, in the resolve that "the supreme test of all political institutions and industrial arrangements shall be the contribution they make to the allaround growth of every member of society."

For Dewey, there is no thing, no entity, corresponding to the ab-

Joseph L. Blau, who, in the summer of 1959, gave the first full semester graduate course ever offered at Columbia University. New York City, on the "Philosophy of John Dewey," is Associate Professor of the Philosophy of Religion at that institution. Reported from Teachers College Record, LXI (December 1959), 121–27.

stract word, "society." There is a wide variety of social arrangements that men in different situations have entered. There is always socialization of some sort. But there is nothing culogistic about socialization; we must remember that, as Dewey said, "It is as marked in the formation of frivilous, dissipated, fanatical, narrow-minded, and criminal persons as in that of competent inquirers, learned scholars, creative artists, and good neighbors." The value of any association must be judged by its consequences, and these consequences are reflections of socialization in the character of those who are associated together. This is as much as to say that associations of all sorts are "means of creating individuals."

But if the associations create individuals, then the individuals must be acknowledged to be, in some sense at least, posterior to the association. Organic separateness may be regarded as prior to social grouping, but not psychic individuality. "Individuality in a social and moral sense is something to be wrought out," wrote Dewey. "It means initiative, inventiveness, Varied resourcefulness, assumption of responsibility in choice of belief and conduct. These are not gifts, achievements. As achievements, they are not absolute but relative to the use that is to be made of them. And this use varies with the environment."

From this point, Dewey's thinking passed over to a dynamic ac-

count of the nature of liberalism. Any true liberalism is a demand for the release of the energies of men. In its own day, a century and more ago, laissez-faire was a true liberalism, calling for the liberation of men from the fetters and restrictions of mercantilism. But since the meaning of the idea of liberty is differently fixed by the conditions of different times and circumstances, and since, in the present age, absolute economic freedom has itself become a factor retarding liberty, the still persistent older "liberalism" of laissez-faire is no longer liberal. The need of the newer day, as Dewey envisaged it, is for the development of an active program of public planning and public control for the sake of the release of individual powers in the present social situation. He did not regard the opposition of these two liberalisms as an antithesis between individualism and collectivism. Each in its own time, he thought, is an individualistic liberalism, since each in its own time is concerned with the freeing of the creative energies and potentialities of every individual.

SOCIALISM IS NEEDED

The building of an antithesis between individualism and collectivism seemed to Dewey to be a distraction from the real problem, "that of remaking society to serve the growth of a new type of individual." One hypothesis that he considered worthy of attention is "that socialism of some form is

needed to realize individual initiative and security on a wide scale." The character and the aspirations of people, what they mean by their own individuality, is determined by the social situation in which they live. The crucial issue, in Dewey's own words, is, "How shall the individual refind himself in an unprecedently new social situation, and what qualities will the new individualism exhibit?"

To make provision for the differences between the effective liberalism of one age and that of another, Dewey formulated his conception of liberalism itself as a method of social action patterned after the experimental methods of the natural sciences. He was thus able to maintain a philosophic concern for the generalized method rather than for the particular conclusions of liberalism. Dewey often called this method "democracy" or "democratic procedure." He constantly stressed his conviction that the term "democracy" should not be limited to the machinery of governmental administration. "The political and governmental phase of democracy is a means, the best means found so far, for realizing ends that lie in the wide domain of human relationships and the development of human personality."

EXPERIMENTAL THINKING

Experimental thinking seemed to Dewey to be also an integral factor in making democracy work. Liberty and equality are not original rights of man, but goals of so-

ciety; they are not the natural endowments of individuals, but the fruits of democratically shared experience. Democracy is more than a political method: it is a way of life whose extension depends on the degree to which the individuals associated in a society are themselves democratic; that is, committed to methods of voluntary association and agreement, to mutual consultation and the pooling of experience. The externals of government are meaningless unless those who are associated together under these forms have "democratic habits of thought and action."

In Dewey's terminology, experimental thinking was synonymous with intelligence. But intelligence is certainly not equally distributed among all members of the human species and Dewey was not a naive egalitarian. Although he recognized inequalities in intelligence, he maintained that all have the capacity to act intelligently to some degree, so that each and every person can make some contribution to the common stock of shared meanings.

The difference between a democratic faith and an authoritarianism is that authoritarianism assumes that there is some prior criterion by the application of which it can assess the value of the contributions that each person is capable of making during his life. A democratic faith, on the other hand, asserts that it is only when all contributions to the pooled intelligence of the entire community have come in that the value of any one contribution may be judged and appraised in terms of the total contribution.

DEMOCRACY'S JUSTIFICATION

In the final analysis, the justification of democracy for Dewey is the similarity that it bears to the experimental method and its ability to assimilate that method to everyday problems. The democratic community seemed to Dewey rather like an extended community of laboratory scientists. Just as in the laboratory, every individual in a democracy should be given the opportunity to contribute in his own way to the solution of the questions of living together that are the common concern of all. The opportunity should not be restricted to participation in government or Public agencies, but should apply in all forms of voluntary associations as well. Dewey advocated the extension of democracy to all corporate bodies, even to families and churches, which are, in our day, though somewhat more feebly than in earlier times, the last strongholds of privilege.

Dewey regarded government as democratic insofar as it is the servant of various groups and voluntary associations, recognizing their diversified interests and "regulating" them only in the sense of preventing their interference with one another. This is the expression of Dewey's faith in human nature. He wrote, in a vivid passage, "The foundation of democracy is faith

in the capacities of human nature, faith in human intelligence, and in the power of pooled and cooperative experience. It is not belief that these things are complete but that if given a show they will grow and be able to generate progressively the wisdom needed to guide collective action."

A CALL TO EFFORT

In our age of pseudo-democracy, when belief in the wisdom of man has fallen before the manipulations of domestic advertising and international propaganda, when a large part of the world of letters has again fallen prey to the seductions of the "logic of general concepts," a reemphasis on the Deweyan faith should serve as a valuable corrective. It is a call to effort, not to inertia. Democracy, like intelligence, is an achievement not a gift. Democracy can never be imposed from without or from above. Men cannot be forced to be free. Democracy cannot be installed in any country by means of a reign of terror.

"Freedom," said Dewey, "is not something that can be handed to men as a gift from the outside, whether by old-fashioned dynastic benevolent despotisms or by newfashioned dictatorships, whether of the proletarian or of the faseist order. It is something which can be had only as individuals participate in winning it; and this fact, rather than some particular political mechanism, is the essence of democratic liberalism."

Ivan Learns English

WALTER V. KAULFERS

In The Clearing House

N this school we teach world geography, world history, and world literature entirely in English starting in the eighth grade. By that time the pupils have had six years of the language in school."

Our hostess, a pleasant young woman in her late twenties, was the assistant to the principal of Moscow's English Experimental School No. 1. She had been assigned to show us the building and to answer questions about the

"The pupils start the language in the second year of school," she continued. "By the time they finish the 10th grade they have had 1,848 class hours of instruction. This is nearly 1,200 hours more than the regular 10-year schools have been giving to foreign language teaching."

"Are there experimental schools like this in other languages besides English?" someone asked.

"Oh yes," she replied. "There are similar schools for German and French and even for Asiatic languages. Some are boarding schools, like the ones in Leningrad for Chinese and Hindi. There are not many yet. Only a few cities have them. Now if you will follow me

"I am going to take you to visit an eighth-grade class in economic geography," our guide said. "In this course, only English is used. The pupils just began the study of Poland vesterday."

The class met in a room large enough to accommodate three rows of double benches, or approximately 36 pupils. Like so many of the world's classrooms today, it was painted a light green. Above the front blackboard was a loud-speaker. Appropriately, it was plugged in behind a picture of Lenin. A large map of Poland hung suspended from the top frame of the blackboard to the floor. This

Walter V. Kaulfers, Professor of Secondary and Comparative Education at the University of Illinois, of a team of leading educators who visited schools and universities in Clearing House, XXXIV (December 1959), 198–201.

equipment, along with a desk for the teacher, the three rows of double benches, and three potted plants sitting on the window sills, constituted the furnishings of the room.

When our group entered the room, the class rose and stood at attention until they received the command to be seated. They then sat erect, looking straight ahead, hands clasped on the desktops in front of them, quietly awaiting the next directive.

The pupils were all boys, 14 to 15 years old, who had completed six years of English. Their instructor was a tall, lean young man with a full head of wavy ash-blond hair combed straight back. In manner and appearance he could have passed for an Oxford graduate who had learned his teaching methods in a Prussian military academy. During the entire 45-minute period, he and his students spoke only English. These boys spoke English so well that they could probably pass for students from some British crown colony, were they to visit the United States.

CLASSROOM RECITATION

"Vasily!" called the teacher, glancing in the direction of a brown-haired youth in the dark blue uniform of the 10-year school. "Step to the blackboard and bring your register with you."

Vasily walked to the front of the room, laying his "register" on the teacher's desk before taking his place beside the map of Poland.

The "register" is a small notebook in which the teacher records a student's grade on major recitations. It is kept by the pupil and must be submitted to his parents periodically for their signature—sometimes as often as once a week.

"What are the chief products of Poland?" asked the instructor.

Vasily hesitated a moment, then began reciting a memorized portion of the textbook: "In coal reserves, Poland takes the third place in western Europe . . . The largest deposit of coal is in the south . . ."

Vasily hesitated again, as if trying to recall what else the book said. "Oh yes," he continued. "Deposits of oil and natural gas are to be found at the foot of the Carpathians." Here, however, his memory failed. Hands on hips, he stood looking at the ceiling waiting for an inspiration.

"Put your arms down and stand up straight," snapped the instructor. "Coal, natural gas, and oil are important products of Poland, but what else?"

No response being forthcoming, he glanced over the back row, trying to decide on whom to call next. Finally he selected a tall, ruddyfaced young man with blond hair and blue eyes. "Vladimir, what are the other chief products of Poland?"

During his classmate's crossexamination, Vasily remained standing beside the map. Vladimir, standing at attention beside his seat, eyes fixed straight ahead began reciting. "The other chief

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Doing the
Right Things
Fasier

The Other Side of Meanness

FRED G. WALCOTT

In Education

Fred G. Walcott is Professor of Education at the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor. Reported from Education, LXXX (December 1959), 255.

EARS of farm life had for my father an educative effect that expressed itself in homespun comments. "The more you lick, the more you can," he said one day apropos of a neighbor's misuse of his team. Speaking out of his long relationship with horses, he enunciated a principle that applies to people, to society, and to social institutions like the school. He knew that by ignorant mistreatment we produce symptoms in the mistreated that seem to call for more of the same mistreatment. If a parent punishes a child for crying, he thereby induces more crying, which calls for more and harsher punishment.

Such phenomenons entail a vicious circle of intensifying cause and effect. As one wit put it, "They make us do the wrong things harder." I myself started such a chain reaction in my first year as a high-school principal. I knew that one of my chief responsibilities was to maintain order in the school; I anticipated mischievous acts before they actually happened, and so presented a stern and threatening mien. I suspected certain pupils of malicious motives and kept a reproving eye on them. Soon the mischievous "under ground" began to operate, and this seemed to me to call for even sterner repression. Any fool could see that I had assumed an untenable position. The vicious circle that I had instituted continued to intensify itself. The end of such relationship is stubborn conflict if not actual defeat.

CARDICUS TO STOLEN TO CASTILLAN TO

It is the obverse side of this principle that I wish to emphasize. Children tend to reflect back the same light we shed on them. They learn from us the color of their own humanity and reveal to us our own traits and convictions. I learned this lesson best while working with so-called "remedial" pupils. These young people had all the symptoms of craft and deception, together with the most irritating ways of attracting attention.

One ill-favored boy came late into my class every day and ostentatiously slammed his books down on the desk. It finally occurred to me that he needed limelight. I said

to him one day, "David, how would you like to take roll for me?" He came up and stood beside me, facing the whole room, and I helped him with the difficult names. His offensive manner disappeared from that day on and I had made a friend.

As soon as they were assured of my kindness, these pupils revealed a shy but eager affection. "Are you going to teach this class next year?" one would ask. "If you are, I'm going to take it again." These children had turned on me the warm and human side of their nature. And so I found that I had come to love them.

Both Sides of Politeness

- The teacher returned to class with the exam papers and requested that all the students sit down. "If you stood up, it is conceivable that you might form a circle—in which case I might be arrested for maintaining a dope ring."—From Texas Outlook.
- A teacher had the son of the town's outstanding citizen and banker in her class. The boy cheated constantly in his daily work and on his examinations. Afraid to be blunt with his father, she finally wrote this remark on his report card: "Forging his way steadily ahead."—From The Educational Courier.
- A letter written in a childish hand recently reached the Johannesburg Publicity Association, South Africa, from the U. S. A. It read: "Dear Sir, I hear that your country is famous for its diamonds. Please send me one small unpolished diamond. Thank you. P. S. Please send it soon."
- Preparing for a visit from the Archbishop, an orphanage superintendent instructed his charges to address the primate either as "Your Grace" or "My Lord." The dignitary arrived and asked one little fellow how old he was. Awed, the youngster replied, "My God, I'm ten."—From Mississippi Educational Advance.

Evidence from California That

Typing Belongs in the Elementary Curriculum

LEO B. HART

In Business Education World

EVERY Monday, at Pondham Elementary School, the regular curriculum is ignored. Each fifthsixth-, seventh-, and eighth-grader spends his day taking a program of seven electives that he has chosen from the 21 electives that make up the Monday class schedule. Typing is one of these. Every child in this school has an opportunity to learn to type, and 99 percent of them take it.

One could hardly label these Monday electives "frills." Numbered among them are such revered subjects as algebra, geometry, chemistry, physics, biology, Spanish, and drafting. A glance at this curriculum should convince even the most skeptical that this is no run-of-the-mill country school. Truly, it is not. And this unique curriculum is no temporary fad at Pondham. It has been in operation at this little school since 1948 and gives promise of continuing for vears to come.

Typing is one of the most popular subjects in this "Monday program." The first year the program went into effect, the Pondham Board of Trustees purchased 12 new standard office typewriters. The enrolment was so heavy that we had to rent four more machines the first year. The enrolment has remained at capacity every year, so

Leo B. Hart was Principal of Pondham Union Elementary School, Pond, California, for 10 years until his retirement last year. Reported from Business Education World, XL (January 1960), 9-11.

we eventually purchased the four "rentals." The school already had a portable that has been pushed into service as often as the enrolment demanded. It has pushed hard.

We do not use the customary small typing tables. We took some old tables about eight feet long and 30 inches wide, remodeled them, and put three machines on each one. There is ample space beside each machine for a typing book, and plenty of practice paper is always available on the shelf in

front of the typewriters.

The seven 40-minute Monday typing classes average about students and accommodate all the children enrolled from the four upper grades. We have never separated the students by grade of age so each class usually includes students from all four grades, and ages range from 10 to 13. Each student works on his own lesson and travels at his own speed. Stur dents use the same textbook that is used in the local high school,

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and their speed tests are the same standardized tests that the high school uses.

There are no scheduled typing practice periods, but the children are welcome to use the machines during any of their free periods, as well as before school and at noontime. They are also permitted to leave class to type papers, including articles for their newspaper and copy for their yearbook. This room is never locked. Since it doubles as a teachers' workroom (for typing of lesson plans, and so forth), it is not uncommon to find all machines in use any day of the week. There is no teacher on duty in this room during these free practice periods.

Students usually begin typing in the fifth grade and they are likely to continue for four years. Although some do better than others, of course, the general group accomplishment is very good, and the achievements of some individual students are remarkable. The desire to excel is a natural outgrowth of the work. It is the students' determination to improve their own achievement, rather than to beat classmates, that works wonders. Typing, however, does become a competitive affair the last month of school as the best typists strive to top each other in a race for "honors."

NON-TEACHER TEACHERS

During the first years of this program, classes were taught by upper-grade teachers, each of

whom taught a period or two of typing and completed her day's assignment by teaching other electives. Now one teacher is employed to teach all typing classes. Two young mothers who live in the community have filled this position successively—and successfully. Each is a graduate of the local elementary school and each was a secretarial major in high school; neither attended college. Each had secretarial experience, and each has done a superb job of teaching the classes.

Each year the caliber of the typing classes improves. In the beginning, students attained speeds of 15 to 20 words a minute. Last year a seventh-grade girl set a record of 71, an eighth-grade girl did 69, two sixth-graders reached 62, and two fifth-graders did 40.

VALUE IS RECOGNIZED

At Pondham we believe typing belongs in the elementary school. Letters and verbal comments from graduates indicate that typing has been a most valuable help to them. They say it aided them in their high-school spelling and composition assignments and that it helped them get better grades in all subjects in which written work was a factor. They now make good use of it in their correspondence and in business. A symposium of our graduates agreed that typing had been of more value to them than any other subject they had taken in the course of their elementaryschool education.

How Can We Get Students up to Cloud Nine?

Meeting Reality in the Classroom

CARL A. BROWN

In The English Journal

Many English teachers have come to realize that there is very little relation between the literature they teach and the material which many students will read after graduation. Sometimes this gap is so large that it is never bridged and the student's school experiences have no relation to his real life. In other words, for every adult who continues to read the type of literature to which he is introduced in high school, there are probably several hundred who, in their adult life, read nothing but popular paperbacks and magazines.

Habits of reading certain specific publications are often fixed even before high-school age. It seems more logical to start where the student is, and then work up from there instead of always to talk about an unobtainable dream castle in the skies which is too fairylike and unreal to have any connection with the actual events of his future everyday life.

With this in mind we conducted at Northern High School a unit devoted to the study of available current magazines. The results of this unit were not only enlightening but amazing.

It was noticeable that some of the most disinterested students were avid readers of lurid and sen-

Carl A. Brown is a teacher at Northern High School, Detroit, Michigan. Reported from The English Journal, XLIV (January 1960), 41-43.

sational "pulp" magazines which were often the only reading material available in their homes, sometimes even lovingly provided by the parents for the children on the theory that they furnished needed moral and sex education.

To learn—as we did from 100 eleventh-grade students—that the magazines they read regularly include—near the top of the list—some of the more lurid magazines published was astonishing to the more cloistered members of the teaching staff. Although the list did include several of the more popular respected magazines, it was, as a whole, obviously not one which would have been prepared by English teachers.

The next step following the survey was to hold a discussion in the participating classes. Students were asked to think carefully and then list their reasons for reading any magazine, and to include reasons for reading their own favorites. Reasons were combined and condensed. It appeared that these students read magazines: to learn

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the news, domestic and foreign; for entertainment (just to "kill" time); for information; for instruction in skills; to have imaginative experiences; to gain understanding of other people; for help in forming opinions; for advice in solving social problems (personal and group); and for self help to better health, success, and vocational advancement. Illustrations were brought out during the discussions showing how these aims could be realized in specific situations.

The next step was to distribute to all members of the classes a copy of a recent Saturday Evening Post magazine. (The Post was selected this study because, though it is a recognized adult publication, it seems to have a wide variety of features which appeal to the genuine interests of the high-school students and also because it is consistently free from the cheaper type of humor and questionable advertising.) The class period was then used to list the various types of materials which go into the makeup of the magazines.

These were discussed and listed as follows: cover, art, index, cost as related to value received, stories and articles by qualified authors, advertising, poetry, illustrations for stories and articles, jokes, cartoons, and special features.

Next a period was devoted to the selection of one sample story for intensive study. Then an article of special interest was read

and studied. Following this, other editions were examined and discussed with emphasis on the scope and variety of interests and materials covered. It was at this point that students borrowed copies to continue reading entirely of their own accord.

Advertising was the next study undertaken. The tricks and skills of the advertising writers were noted as the examples were examined for such qualities as originality, integrity, color, brevity, humor, slogans, catch phrases, beauty and luxury appeal. To provide active creative participation, students were assigned the task of writing a magazine advertisement for a new product not yet on the market (an invention of the teacher). This actual attempt to produce an "ad" made the problems of advertising much more real and gave the teacher a chance to point out the ethics of false and elaborate claims that are all too common in the "pulp" materials many of them had been reading.

Other periods were devoted to reading and sharing orally the humorous special features, listing new words added to vocabularies, discovering new and broader interests, and perceiving values more apparent in better materials.

As a test all students were asked to rate the two best magazines in their own opinions, considering all the features listed previously, and to explain why they selected any favorite one. These comments showed a marked increase in ana-

lytic skill and frequently a change of attitudes and interests.

Culture comes slowly at best. But it does not come at all to a person who never contacts it on a level that he can understand. I have long believed that the ancient literary masters are likely to be a little moldy for the young readers of today, who live in a modern city and have only a very limited relation to an historical English background. Students are not necessarily "stupid" because they are more interested in a star baseball player's successful technique than in Romeo's antique

methods of "pitching woo." For every English teacher who dotes on the story of Prometheus, a thousand modern youngsters want to know the thrilling story of the satellites. Should we insist that they wade through a million pages of mythology before they read one word about modern medicine or the conquest of the Arctic by a modern Nautilus?

Should we help them to take one real step forward, or concentrate entirely on moving them from our own cloud nine to cloud ten, assuming that we can get them to that cloud nine in the first place?

FTER being tormented by memories of "confusion worse confounded" on final examination papers . . . I think I have found the solution to all our pedagogic troubles. If "much learning doth make thee mad," a small tasty sample of facts scrambled in advance might restore our sanity. Starting with errors, would not the average student wind up with correct answers through sheet perversity? Following a priori reasoning, isn't it obvious that by a process of skillful scrambling of the facts we wish to teach, we can arrive at something closer to the truth than anything heretofore achieved. Every teacher of English will know how to begin. Here are a few concrete suggestions for next semester's plan book: In teaching The Ancient Mariner, admit defeat before you start and call it "Silas Mariner." . . . Admit that Charles Dickens was really a woman. In his (her) famous novel, "Twice-Told Tales of Two Cities," Sidney Carlton dies saying, "I only regret that I have but one life to give to my country"... In composition, let us end the farce of a topic sentence and a well-developed paragraph. Stream of consciousness will serve to enlighten the teacher and straighten out the mental kinks in the adolescent. It won't be any more confusing than the themes now submitted that begin so bravely and end so far from the original goal.—Ethel K. Harte in The

Encouraging Growth of Student Teachers

Student Teachers Try Action Research

ALEX F. PERRODIN

In The Journal of Teacher Education

T is important that the student teacher be given an opportunity to test theory in action, to help him to discover his own strengths and weaknesses as a teacher, and to develop some competences that will bolster his self-confidence as he goes on to "real" teaching.

Recently, in an effort to encourage individuality and at the same time to contribute to the development of problem-solving skills, supervisory personnel at the University of Georgia encouraged elementary-school student teachers to try a simplified version of action research. The following are examples of brief summaries taken from student accounts of their experiences:

EXAMPLE 1

Grade Level: First.

Problem: How can I obtain information concerning this group of children which will aid me in improving my teaching with this group?

Hypothesis: If a survey is made of reading and television interests, this information will serve as a guide to improve my teaching.

Action Taken: (1) Studied cumulative records to determine socioeconomic status and intellectual ability of children involved in study; (2) developed an interview guide containing questions about reading and television interests; graders using this guide; and (4)

Alex F. Perrodin is Associate Professor of Education, University of Georgia, Athens. Reported from The Journal of Teacher Education, X (December 1959), 471-74.

tabulated these data and attempted to draw implications for teaching.

Findings and Evaluation: (1) Found information on books children had at home, children's interests in these books, magazines in the home, and indications of interest in parts of newspapers; (2) children indicated interest in books with color pictures, yet some preferred to read or hear the story without looking at pictures; (3) boys preferred animal and western stories but girls preferred fairy tales and travel; (4) all children had TV at home; viewing habits varied greatly, but comedies and westerns were their favorite types of programs; and (5) this information enabled the student teacher to become better acquainted with her class group and served as a valuable guide to her planning of learning experiences.

EXAMPLE 2

Grade Level: Second (last months of school year).

Problem: What teaching procedures and materials should be used with the advanced group of children who completed the second-grade basic reading program by the end of March?

Hypothesis: If these children are guided in reading books of their own choice, they will continue to

gain in reading skills and will develop further interest in reading.

Action Taken: (1) Both student teacher and supervising teacher read widely available materials on "individualized reading programs": (2) collected books from a variety of sources; (3) made plans for and explained proposed program to children; (4) prepared individual record sheets entitled "My Reading Record"; (5) allowed minimum of 30 minutes per day for individualized reading and developed with the children guides to selection, reading, reporting, and recording.

Findings and Evaluation: (1) The 12 students involved read more books in 20 days than the entire class of 25 pupils had read in the previous nine weeks; (2) children and teachers were very enthusiastic about this type of reading program; (3) children improved in ability to select books that they could read independently; (4) other children became more interested in reading; (5) teacher and student teacher plan to continue this procedure in combination with the standard basal reading pro-

EXAMPLE 3

Grade Level: Fourth.

Problem: How can I best help to improve the reading of the slow

reading group?

Hypothesis: If children are provided with interesting reading materials at their reading level and are given daily guided instruction in word recognition skills, they will gain confidence and skill in read-

Action Taken: (1) Checked on children's reading-grade ments and ability levels; (2) provided basic reading materials at their reading levels; (3) used teacher's guide materials from publishers of basic reading series to aid in developing daily plans; (4) used phonics, recordings, and accompanying cards in relation to daily reading program; and (5) developed daily mimeographed teaching and drill materials.

Findings and Evaluation: Through conferences, teacher observation, and teacher-prepared tests, evaluation of children's progress was continuous; and (2) children gained in confidence, they gave evidence of improved attitudes toward reading, and scores teacher-prepared reading-achievement tests showed improvement.

EXAMPLE 4

Grade Level: Third.

Problem: How can the tape recorder contribute to a sound educational program?

Hypothesis: If a tape recording is made of parts of a unit of work, children will be helped to improve in their writing and speaking.

Action Taken: (1) The student teacher planned with the pupils for a program based on the ongoing unit theme; (2) children wrote paragraphs from which selections were made for the recording; (3) children of varying abilities were selected to do the recording; and (4) the tape was played back for group evaluation.

Findings and Evaluation: (1) All ability levels took part and profited from the experience; (2) children dren were enthusiastic in their desire to improve writing and speaking; (3) all children had an opportunity to learn from the sharing of information; and (4) instudent teacher gained new hilsights into behavior of the children involved.

OTHER PROJECTS

other action-research Several projects were developed by student teachers and their supervisors.

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An interesting one was used in a first grade to help in the prevention of mental-health problems. Another in a fourth grade was devised to encourage natural curiosity of children in such a way as to contribute to a planned school program. This one involved the selection by fourth-grade children of the "Mystery of the Week." It grew out of questions raised in several of their classes. Written on the blackboard was the heading "Mystery of the Week," and the "mysteries" included "How much is one peso?" suggested from a filmstrip of Mexico; "How was soap made in olden davs?" from a story read by one reading group; and "Why do we observe Valentine's day?" from a class discussion of the need for a Valentine box. The children were encouraged to act as detectives and to try to obtain clues providing answers to questions such as these, but kept the answers to themselves until the end of the Week.

These action-research examples are not suggested as substitutes for a planned research program. Neither are they intended to take priority over the primary functions of a student-teaching experience. But they have provided an opportunity to encourage the growth of the student teacher as an individual, and they have given him an op-

portunity to try something not ordinarily associated with the supervising teacher's successful procedures.

Careful preplanning with both the college supervisor and the supervising teacher was done to avoid any threat to the security of the established procedures of the supervising teacher. At the same time both student teacher and supervising teacher have had an opportunity to develop a better understanding of the basic skills of action research. They have been sensitized to problems of teaching; helped to define these problems; enabled to state hunches as hypotheses; provided with some opportunity to test these beliefs and then to try ways of evaluating the findings and the procedures that were used.

Sufficient time has not elapsed to determine whether the learnings involved in these experiences will be tried again in the solving of new problems as the students continue in the teaching profession. However, it is hoped that the interest which has developed, the skills that have been obtained, and the satisfactions which have accrued from solving small problems will give the neophyte sufficient confidence and understanding of a useful method to attack larger problems as they arise.

EACHING is a lot like fishing. Sometimes they bite and sometimes they don't. A lot depends on the kind of lure you use.—James Humphrey, University of Maryland.

The Process of Reading

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GUY T. BUSWELL.

In The Reading Teacher

HEN children first enter school they have already learned to communicate through speech. The process of learning to read can best be understood by relating it to the nature of speech and to the experiences which children have had in learning to speak. Psychologically, the processes of speech and reading are quite similar, the difference being mainly in the sense avenue through which the verbal stimuli are received.

When children enter school they have an oral vocabulary of several thousand words. They have learned to distinguish very small differences in word sounds. They have learned that the ideas expressed in speech depend on the serial order in which the words are spoken. And they have attained a degree of skill in listening that enables them to understand speech at the usual rate of adult conversation.

The essential differences between knowing how to read and how to understand oral speech is the substitution of visual perception of printed verbal symbols for the auditory impression of the same symbols when spoken. The thoughts expressed are the same, the vocabulary is the same, and the word order is the same. The new problem in reading is to learn to recognize the visual symbols with accuracy and reasonable speed.

The unit in reading material is the same as the unit in speech, namely, the word. The first problem in learning to read is to recognize these printed symbols and to relate them to the corresponding speech symbols. The early American schools failed to see this essential relationship and instead introduced reading by teaching first the

Guy T. Buswell is Professor Emeritus, University of California, Berkeley. Reported from The Reading Teacher, XIII (December 1959), 108-14. letters of the alphabet, then syllables, regardless of whether or not they were meaningful, and finally whole words and phrases. However, studies using a tachistoscope have shown that familiar words can be recognized about as quickly as individual letters or syllables, and that short phrases of familiar words can be recognized almost as readily as single words.

WORD PATTERNS

The effect of the extensive research of this type has been to emphasize that reading deals with word patterns rather than with individual letters or syllables. To be sure, in initial learning of new words, attention may need to be given to the sequence of certain letters and syllables, but when the child has learned thoroughly to recognize a word, the relationship of length of word and difficulty disappears. Learning a word is not a matter of getting the meaning from the sum of the letters or syllables, but rather from learning to recognize it as a whole much as one learns to recognize a person. The appearance of words should be learned so thoroughly that, during the process of reading, only a minimum of attention needs to be given to these details.

Tachistoscopic research has shown that it is easily possible to recognize a familiar word in one-hundredth of a second. But it does not follow that a person can recognize 100 words in one second. Reading is not a process of rapid

recognition of one word after another. Rather, it is a process of fusing the meaning of single words into a sequence of meaning. The total act of reading is, therefore, a combination of the visual recognition and the central thought processes that are stimulated by them.

This complex act is sometimes separated into the mechanics of reading and comprehension. This may be a convenient way to analyze the total reading process provided one understands clearly that both are necessary for the complete act of reading. Several studies of oral reading in the first grade have shown that pupils sometimes carry on the process of word-calling without any apparent comprehension of the fused thought content.

RATE OF READING

During the past 30 years there has been wide interest in reading. And today the fact that an increasing number of young people continue their education beyond high school is focusing new attention on rate of reading. However, in spite of interest and research into mechanics and methods there is little evidence of the application of these in such a way as to increase the rate of reading among students. Yet, the demands of college programs continue to put an even greater strain on the slow reader. The usual rate of reading nontechnical material at the end of the elementary school is about 250 words per minute, while for college students the average rate is about 300 words. This smallness of the increase beyond the rate of the elementary school is a cause of much concern, particularly in view of the selective character of the college population.

RESEARCH ON RATE

There has been a great deal of research on methods of increasing rate of reading. One method has been to use flash cards or tachistoscopes to induce quicker perception of printed words. By and large, the results have been disappointing. In an attempt to deal with rate of reading in a more functional situation, various methods have been devised to stimulate and control rate. Of the different methods used to present successive parts of a line at controlled rates, the Harvard reading films are perhaps the

More recently, attention has shifted to methods of exposing, or covering, successive lines of a printed page by mechanical devices which make possible the exposure of material to be read at whatever rate is desired. The results from these methods have indicated that rate, without loss of comprehension, can be increased far beyond the rates usually obtained in school classes. Evidence from eye-movement records taken at the end of such training shows that the principal change has been in span of recognition rather than in duration of fixations. A gain of 50 percent in span of recognition is usually accompanied by gains of not more than 10 percent in speed of recognition.

There have been extreme claims for gains in rate of reading that go quite beyond the credulity of serious researchers, but there is well substantiated evidence from research on rate of reading that leaves little room for doubt that a sizeable increase in rate without loss in comprehension could be achieved if schools were to attempt it seriously. There is no support in research for the popular notion that the slow reader is superior in comprehension.

An increase in rate by even 25 percent by the end of high school would be of incalculable value to those who go on to college and would make possible increased breadth of information and ideas for those who leave school. More serious research on rate is needed, but studies now available indicate that, at the college level, rate of reading may be forced from 100 to 300 words per minute above the reader's present rate without a break in the level of tested comprehension

THE BASIC PROBLEM

In the writer's view, the teaching of reading is basically a problem of visual perception. The first goal is to enable the child to derive meaning from printed verbal symbols at the same level of functional efficiency that he has already attained in getting meanings from spoken words. The child

learned to interpret speech at a functional level before entering school. The first obligation of the reading class is to produce this same efficiency with respect to the visual perception of print. There is no substitute for this ability; this is a first obligation. The process of learning to read is the process of doing just this.

Other aspects of reading are less important until basic reading ability is achieved. The school has so often cluttered its program of reading with secondary objectives, some of them of admitted value, that the primary objective of teaching reading is not achieved. The writer has had in his college classes students of unquestioned intelligence who were slow, clumsy readers because their basic reading ability was permitted to level off too soon. On tests of basic reading they scored below sixth-grade norms.

Learning to read a foreign language is a parallel case of perceptual learning. If I want to learn to read the Russian language, my first task is to learn the words when they are printed in Russian and to associate them with their meanings. My goal is to learn these words in their various forms so well that I can read them at the same rate as I read my vernacular. I do not need to be taught how to think, or how to solve problems, or how to spell, or how to improve my personality by reading Russian, or what the great classics of Russian literature are. These may be good, but they do not teach me to read Russian. I already know how to read, but not in the Russian language.

The reading process is basically this kind of perceptual learning. The school needs to know how to accomplish it more effectively. The present intellectual climate is more favorable to basic research on methods of teaching reading than has been the case for three decades. Reading would be served by some singleness of purpose.

Children and Adult Reading

- It would be an amazing revelation to the public in general if they knew that about one-third of our children could learn to read well and easily without any instruction whatever, and that a large fraction of this group have actually done that before entering school. It would perhaps tually disturbing to point out that a less fortunate be equally disturbing to point out that a less fortunate third would have extraordinary difficulty, no matter what the teacher or system we devise.—Donald N. Nelson in The Clearing House.
 - The average businessman is said to read 250 words a minute, but to comprehend only 75 percent of what he reads.—From The Journal of Business Education.

→ With Education in Washington →

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

Grants-in-Aid Wins.-When the U. S. Senate began debating federal aid to education on February 3, four major ideas were competing

for approval.

The first of these was that the U. S. government help underwrite education by relinquishing to the states certain taxes which have in recent years been taken over by Washington. There is the tax on cigarettes, for example, and the tax on local telephone service. Return these to the states, argued Senator Cotton (R., N.H.), and there will be no need for the federal government to make further grants to support public education. The senators rejected this one.

The second idea also sought to avoid direct grants to the states. It was based on the White House plan of encouraging local school districts to market their bonds. It was presented to the Senate as the Dirksen amendment, because Senator Dirksen (R., Ill.) was chosen by the Administration to lead the fight for its adoption. The Senate rejected it. Senator Cooper (R., Ky.) and Javits (R., N. Y.) then tried a variation. They proposed that over a four-year period the federal government shall meet the payments of interest and principal on one-half of the bonds which a school district may issue-to the extent of \$1 billion a year in each of four years. "As a result, \$4 billion of school construction could

be started in the four-year period," Mr. Javits said. Again the senators said no.

The third idea was that Congress simply authorize sums from year to year (the amounts might vary, depending on the condition of the U. S. budget) and let the states decide how to spend their allot-Senator Magnuson Wash.) argued that this would circumvent such sticky issues as aid for parochial schools, aid for auxiliary services, and the desegregation problem. "The states know their educational needs," Mr. Magnuson argued. "The states can do what they wish to do (with the funds) legally under their constitutions !! tions." This concept, too, was defeated.

It was the fourth idea which won out. Under this concept, the Sen ate specified not only the amount of the grants but their duration and specific purpose.

In summary, the Senate decided to stick to the traditional grants in-aid-pattern, earmarking and controlling the sums that are to go from Washington to the states for educational purposes.

Moment."-Despite "A Proud the sharpness and complexity of the debate, it took the Senate of two days to approve its version a federal-aid bill. Washington by servers were surprised not only by the expeditious action but also

the broad terms of the legislation.

The measure which the Senate approved was known technically as S. 8, as amended, and the amendments are of vital importance. The measure provides grants for both school construction and teacher salaries for a period of two years, costing \$1,800,000,000. The final vote on the measure was 51-34. In the yeas column were to be found such stalwarts as Senators Johnson (D., Tex.), Kennedy (D., Mass.), Fulbright (D., Ark.), and Humphrey (D., Minn.). Senate majority leader Johnson credited three other senators for the success of legislation. After saying "this is a very proud moment for the Senate," Mr. Johnson commended the leadership of Senators McNamara (D., Mich.), Clark (D., Pa.), and Monroney (D., Okla.). The legislation is now popularly known as the Mc-Namara-Clark-Monronev bill.

When the Senate debate started, it had before it a rather narrow piece of legislation. It provided only for school construction grants. But under the rules of debate, the Senate was under obligation to weigh many amendments. most important of these were proposed by Senator Cotton, Senators Cooper and Javits, and Senator Dirksen. Each was rejected because they provided either unorthodox approaches to financing education or were unpalatable to the Democratic majority.

The amendments which were accepted were those by Senators Clark and Monroney. The result

was a piece of legislation which, although orthodox in its approach, could be far reaching in results. The big point, of course, is that the Senate has committed itself to helping school districts not only build more classrooms but raise teacher salaries.

Federal-aid proponents now turn to the House. There it is freely predicted that House policy-makers will rewrite the bill, toning it down. There are also predictions that should the bill pass the House, its terms will cover only school construction. A more liberal bill is under threat of a Presidential veto should it reach the White House.

What Are Our Goals?—The goals that America should strive for in this decade-including the goals of education-are under study Washington. Two items are worth noting:

1. The Commission on National Goals has begun its work under a Presidential directive asking that "the panel develop a broad outline of national objectives and programs for the next decade and longer."

Educational Policies 2. The Commission, meanwhile, writing the goals of American education," an NEA official revealed.

The discussion over goals is also being carried on informally around Washington luncheon and conference tables. Among the personages stirring "the great debate" is 70year-old Walter Lippmann, the columnist, who poses such questions as: "Is America devoting too much of its resources to consumer goods and services and not enough to public services such as education and health? Where is the sense of national purpose in our society when we spend more money and energy on creating shinier tailfins while allowing schools to deteriorate?"

These and related problems will come before the Goals Commission. Its chairman is Dr. H. M. Wriston, former Brown University president. Working with Dr. Wriston will be James B. Conant, former president of Harvard; James R. Killian, Jr. of M. I. T.; Clark Kerry, University of California; as well as leaders of labor, industry, and so-

Education's goals are definitely in the Commission's sphere of interest. In fact, the idea for a Goals Commission first came to Mr. Eisenhower when he was concerned with public-school problems. He referred to this idea publicly for the first time in his 1959 State of the Union Message. At that time he said: "We must have teachers of competence. To obtain and hold them we need standards."

When asked to explain at a subsequent press conference, Mr. Eisenhower said:

"Now, let me give you just one or two examples. I happen to know of one school district near Chicago where a very dedicated group of citizens went to work to make certain that their teachers were properly paid. The maximum salary of

a qualified high-school teacher in that school became \$10,000. And pretty soon it was picked up by the districts and the quality of teaching, the morale of the teacher, and of the students and everybody else went up high, very high.

"We have teachers for a purpose . . . They are . . . not an end in themselves . . . We've got to think whether we should have completely classical or whether we should center on science alone. We must get a standard that brings us a well-rounded student." At the same press conference, Mr. Eisenhower said that he was trying to get together a "panel on national standards and goals."

It took Mr. Eisenhower more than 12 months to create the Goals Commission; and it may take that long or longer for the group to prepare its report.

The Educational Policies Commission may take as long to publish its conclusions. A spokesman for the EPC said that although its members are now involved in try ing to decide "what the controlling purposes of education are, the educators are far from agreement. is not difficult to set down all the purposes which American schools and colleges should pursue, spokesman said. But the fine point before the Policies Commission for to set up educational priorities for the decade. This task may not be completed until 1961, or later.

Doomed?-The requirement that students getting federal loans under

the National Defense Education Act must sign an anti-Communist affidavit appears doomed-if the weight of educators' opinion means anything.

The opposition to this "label of discrimination" against students is growing in strength. More than half a hundred colleges and universities have either protested the affidavit provision or have withdrawn from the federal-loans program because of it. Major educational association groups, including the American Association of Land Grant Colleges, American Council on Education, and the National Education Association, are also against it. President Eisenhower and Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare Flemming have added their prestige to the effort seeking to end the provision.

But only Congress can make the change. In the Senate, the sentiment is strong for repeal. This is reflected in the large support (still unofficial) given to a measure by Senator Kennedy (D., Mass.) seeking to strike the affidavit provision from the National Defense Education Act.

Although Senator Kennedy is not certain of victory, he is assured of a brisk debate on his measure. The question has been placed on the Senate calendar for a vote as soon as that body clears civil rights legislation.

Despite the fact that a majority of Democratic senators and Republican administration leaders oppose the affidavit, its ultimate repeal will require a sharp battle. Here's why:

A hard core of senators will fight for its retention. Senators Mundt (S. D.), Bridges (N. H.), and Dirksen (Ill.), for example, believe that there is nothing wrong with requiring a student to swear that he does not believe in, does not belong to, and does not support organizations that want to overthrow the U.S. government by force. "In fact, they should be honored to be so singled out," Senator Bridges said on one occasion. Many Congressmen support this view. They have a leader in Chairman Graham A. Barden, of the House Education and Labor Committee, who is on record with these words: "I will resist with everything that is within me the removal of that provision."

Another factor complicating the removal of the affidavit provision is its link with the "positive" oath of allegiance, also required by the Defense Education Act. The latter requirement is not as objectionable either to many students or to college officials. Senator Kennedy's bill would not affect the oath. But in any debate on the question, affidavit and oath become confused. Senator Russell (D., Ga.) has said:

"We are rather old-fashioned people in my part of the country. The children stand up in the schools-there is no law against it yet-and pledge allegiance to the flag of the United States, and to the Republic for which it stands, and so forth. It seems to me that the lovalty oath and affidavit are of the same nature."

Most educators see it differently. Referring to both the oath of allegiance and the affidavit, Yale President Griswold said: "They are worse than futile. Belief in democracy cannot be induced or assured by oaths, exacted in advance . . ."

More Milk.-Congressmen want America's school children to drink more milk.

In a debate in which only one dissenting voice was raised, the House of Representatives approved a bill increasing the amounts of money for school milk during 1960 and 1961. The lone dissenter was Rep. Alger (R., Tex.)

The increase was necessary, said Rep. Johnson (D., Wis.) "to keep pace with rising school enrolment and increased school participation."

As passed by the House, the measure would raise from \$81 million to \$85 million the school-milk appropriation for 1960; and from \$84 million to \$85 million in 1961.

The school-milk program started in 1954. It has been growing each year. This year it involves nearly one-half of the school children of the nation, attending some 80,000 schools and child-care institutions. They consume over 2 billion half pints a school year. For each half pint a school buys the Commodity Credit Corporation of the Department of Agriculture returns 4 cents to the school. But last fall, the Department of Agriculture announced it would cut the reimbursement

rate by one-half cent beginning March I. The schools thus faced the possibility of higher schoollunch costs.

The school budgets are not prepared to meet the increase, one superintendent after another wrote their congressmen.

House members rose to the challenge not only with an approving vote but also with glowing tributes to the milk program. "Remember, this is an investment in America's children," said Congresswoman Pfost (D., Idaho).

As for the lone dissenter, he said: "If we are thus to distribute food, why not clothing? Suppose, for example, our children need blue jeans. Many children wear blue jeans and, of course, some of them are a little fraved. Surely the blue jeans manufacturers must want to produce all the blue jeans they can, and I am sure they would ap preciate a Government-supported price for them.

"I am interested in the health I wonder if the federal government can replace the parents in discharging this responsibility, or if it has any business trying."

That kind of talk is not popular on Capitol Hill in the year 1960.

The Civil War.-The Civil War Centennial Commission, set up by Congress in 1957, is now at work preparing to teach the nation that history lessons connected with that war and for the observance of the war years, 1861-65.

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Educational News

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENCIES: Middleton, N. Y.: Ralph L. Shattuck has resigned, effective July

Columbus, Miss.: C. N. Brandon, superintendent for 31 years, will

retire in July.

Tyler, Tex.: Hollis A. Moore has resigned to become regional representative for the U.S. Office of Education with headquarters in Dallas.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

Arizona State University, Tempe: H. D. Richardson, vicepresident, has been named acting president, succeeding Grady Gammage, who died in December.

Howard University, Washington, D. C.: Mordecai W. Johnson has announced his retirement, effec-

tive in June.

University of Arkansas, Fayetteville: David W. Mullins, formerly executive vice-president of Auburn University, has been named successor to John T. Caldwell, now chancellor of North Carolina State College, Raleigh.

Temple University, Philadelphia: Millard E. Gladfelter has been in-

augurated as president.

East Carolina College, Greenville, N. C.: Leo W. Jenkins, formerly vice-president, is successor to John D. Messick, who is now assistant director of the Special Education and Rehabilitation Study of the Subcommittee on Special Education, Washington, D. C.

Central State College, Edmond, Okla.: Garland A. Godfrey, superintendent, Durant, Okla., will succeed W. Max Chambers on his re-

tirement in June.

Southwestern Weatherford, Okla.: Al Harris, su-College. perintendent at Clinton, Okla., has been named successor to R. H. Burton on his retirement in June.

Teacher-Training Institutions:

University of Arizona, Tucson: Hollis A. Moore, Jr., executive secretary of the Committee for the Advancement of School Administration, AASA, has been named dean of the school of education.

Yeshiva University, New York, N. Y.: Hirsch L. Silverman has been named chairman of the department of educational and school psychology of the graduate school of

education.

College of Education at Oneonta, N. Y.: Frank M. Vairo has been named assistant professor of ele-

mentary education.

Pennsylvania State Teachers College, Edinboro: Herman L. Offner, dean of instruction, has retired to become regional representative of the U.S. Office of Education in New York City.

OTHER CHANGES AND

APPOINTMENTS:

James H. Corson, formerly superintendent at Modesto, Calif., has been named executive secretary of the California Association of School Administrators, succeeding Robert E. Cralle, now director of the teacher placement office, University of Southern California, Los Angeles.

George D. Stoddard, formerly dean of the school of education, New York University, has been named chancellor and executive vice-president of the University.

David A. Lockmiller, president of Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, has been elected president of the Association of American Col-

leges.

Samuel P. Hayes, director of the Foundation for Research on Human Behavior, Ann Arbor, Mich., has been named director of the Unesco Department of Social Sciences in Paris, effective in June. Hollis W. Peter, associate director of the Foundation, will succeed Dr. Hayes as director.

Ellsworth Tompkins is now executive secretary of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Dr. Tompkins, formerly associate secretary, succeeded Paul

E. Elicker, retired.

J. Kenneth Little, director of institutional studies, University of Wisconsin, has been named director of the U. S. federal educationalprogram survey, a one-year evaluation study of the scholarship, fellowship, and educational programs of all agencies of the federal gov-

RECENT DEATHS:

Jesse P. Bogue, formerly executive director of the American Association of Junior Colleges, at the

Henry Stilwell, president of Texarkana College since 1955, and an educational leader in Texas for nearly 50 years.

Research Council

FORMATION of a Council for Research in Education to seek and administer funds for educational research was announced in January. Delegates from 21 national organizations participated in organizing the Council, which will not do research itself, but will seek funds from foundations, business and industry, and individuals for research. The Council may publish reports of research where it obtains the necessary financial sup-

Kenneth E. Anderson, dean of the school of education, University of Kansas, is chairman of the Council.

Project Evaluation

Lewis E. Harris, executive secretary of the Ohio School Boards Association, has been named director of a new project on the evaluation of school systems.

The evaluation project, which is being jointly sponsored by the National School Boards Association and the American Association of School Administrators, will study the approaches, methods, and instruments used by superior school systems in carrying out comprehensive selfevaluations. The purpose of the study, it is stressed, is not to evaluate school systems but to study the approaches to evaluation used by districts in evaluating themselves.

A grant of \$75,000 has been made by the Fund for the Advancement of Education to finance the study. Headquarters for the joint project will be located in Columbus in the offices of the School Boards Association.

TV Audience Likes Rickover

THE National Broadcasting Company reports that Vice Admira Hyman G. Rickover's criticism of American education on "Meet the Press" on Jan. 24 brought the large est audience response in the year history of the program.

Lawrence E. Spivak, producer of "Meet the Press," said that program received more than 000 requests for copies of the interview terview. He said that an unusual aspect of the mail response that viewer comment was virtually

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unanimous in its praise of Admiral Rickover's remarks. Rickover—as he has in numerous speeches—called for fundamental changes in the American public-school system, declaring that "the children in our schools are wasting their time on many subjects which have nothing to do with education whatsoever."

Foreign Seminar

FORTY U. S. school administrators are participating this month in the Second Annual Foreign Seminar in Europe. The participants were selected from more than 600 candidates by the Board of Foreign Scholarships.

Twenty of the administrators are in France and Finland; the others are in Italy and Norway. They are attending lectures and discussions in the foreign capitals comparing European and American educational methods and are visiting foreign schools and conferring with school administrators.

The U. S. Office of Education is administering the project under the International Exchange Program of the Department of State.

AASA Convention

ALL phases of present-day educational problems were considered by more than 20,000 school administrators and educators at the 92nd annual convention of the American Association of School Administrators, held Feb. 13-17 in Atlantic City, N. J. The theme of the conference was "Creating and Coping with Change."

Speakers at the nine general ses-

sions and more than 100 group sessions and section meetings included leaders from all phases of education as well as such political and industrial figures as Governor Nelson A. Rockefeller, New York; U. S. Secretary of Agriculture Ezra Taft Benson; and George Romney, president, American Motors Corporation.

The AASA will hold regional conventions instead of a national convention in 1961. These are scheduled to be held in San Francisco, St. Louis, and Philadelphia.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

March 6-9, Association for Higher Education, Chicago, Ill.

Mar. 6-10, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Washington, D. C.

Mar. 24-26, National Aviation Education Council, Denver, Colo.

Mar. 25-30, NEA Department of Elementary School Principals, St. Louis, Mo.

Mar. 27-April 2, White House Conference on Children and Youth, Washington, D. C.

Mar. 29-April 2, National Science Teachers Association, Kansas City, Mo.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:
April 3-9, National Library

Week.
April 11-14, American Personnel and Guidance Association, Philadelphia, Pa.

April 17-21, Association for Childhood Education International,

Cleveland, Ohio.

April 19-22, National Catholic
Educational Association, Chicago.

April 19-22, American Industrial
Arts Association, Toronto, Canada.

April 20-23, National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, Buffalo. Catholic Viewpoint on Education. Neil G. McCluskey, S. J. Garden City, N. Y.: Hanover

House, 1959. Pp. 192. \$3.50.

In this book, Father McCluskey attempts to give his readers a better understanding of the current school issues involving Catholics. After briefly outlining the history of education in the U.S. and the rise of the Catholic educational system, he discusses the philosophy of private education, the contributions it has made to American society, and the position of private and public education in America

The author also discusses such pertinent problems of parochial schools as the use of public funds for transportation, welfare, and textbooks for parochial school children, religious instruction in the public schools, and release-time programs. Father McCluskey's analysis of these problems should be interesting and informative Catholics and non-Catholics alike.

McCluskey, a priest, is education editor of Amer-

Tenure in American Higher Education: Plans, Practices, and the Law. Clark Byse and Louis Joughin. Ithaca, N. Y.: Cornell University Press, 1959. Pp. xvi + 212. \$3.50.

"Old and widely accepted as is the basic concept that faculty members who have served a proper period of apprenticeship shall enjoy security in their posts and be subject to removal only for 'adequate cause,' this is the first attempt to subject this important aspect of academic life to systematic analysis," says Robert K. Carr of Dartmouth College, in the introduction to this book.

The authors discuss plans and practices of tenure, point out the legal aspects of tenure, and then give their conclusions and recommendations.

The study was undertaken for the American Academic Freedom Project at Columbia University and was financed by a grant from the Fund for the Republic.

Education and the Democratic

Foith. Ephraim Vern Sayers and Ward Madden. New York: Appleton - Century Crofts, Inc., 1959. Pp. xii + 472, \$4,25,

Subtitled "An Introduction Philosophy of Education," this book is intended, according to the authorithment thors, to present the principal issues that divide Americans today in respect to the fundamental pur poses and qualities of both life and education. The authors express the hope that it will help clarify and appraise these issues at the level

of philosophical thinking. The book begins with a direct presentation of certain democratic issues, moves on to explore the bio social context within which those issues must be resolved, proceeds next to the ultimate ethical, estherich tic, and spiritual problems in which the issues of democracy eventuater and finally considers these same is sues as they occur in the school.

Policy-Administration Making in Education. John Walton. Baltimore, Md.: 1959. 1959. Johns Hopkins Press, Pp. 207. \$5.00.

This book tries to give some constent form sistent form to the mass of unite MARCH

lated data, working hypotheses, and theoretical assumptions that have formed the basis of thinking in educational administration.

The author, who is chairman of the department of education at The Johns Hopkins University, discusses the nature and function of administration in education, the influences of the discernment of purpose on the over-all policy for education, the necessity for coordination for the operation of the educational organization, and the requirements of administration for structure and authority.

Prologue to Teaching; Readings and Source Materials with Text. Edited by Marjoric B. Smiley and John S. Dielhoff. New York: Oxford University Press, 1959. Pp. xviii + 590. \$5.75.

This book is designed to help the prospective teacher understand better the historical, philosophical, and sociological backgrounds of education.

The book is comprised of text and reading organized around four topics of concern in the field of education: The Vocation of Teaching; School for All; The Purposes of Education; and The School in Context. Provocative essays by the editors preface each of the four sets of readings. The readings themselves are varied in source and content, the authors ranging from Plato and Aristotle to Commager, Riesman, and Dewey.

Academic Procession. Henry M. Wriston. New York: Columbia University Press, 1959. Pp. 222. \$4.00.

Subtitled "Reflections of a College President," this book tells the experiences of the author as presi-

dent of Lawrence College from 1926 to 1937 and of Brown University from 1937 to 1955, as well as some of his background experiences before he was appointed a college president.

The author, instead of attempting a chronologically-based autobiography, divides the book into various phases of college and university life and comments on them, drawing on his own personal experiences. These elements of higher education include: the trustees, the faculty, the administration, the students, the alumni, and the public.

Dr. Wriston concludes this interesting book with the statement: "Let these chapters be read—if at all—as a personal view of an institution—not an institutional view of a person."

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED: ELEMENTARY

Storytelling. Ruth Tooze. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. Pp. xvii + 268. \$5.25. Includes 20 stories for retelling.

Resource Materials for Teachers of Spelling. Paul S. Anderson. Minneapolis, Minn.: Burgess Publishing Company, 1959. Pp. ii + 118. \$3.00.

The Arithmetic of Flying. Washington, D. C.: National Aviation Education Council. Pp. 42. \$.50. A resource unit for seventh and eighth graders or for enrichment of gifted elementary pupils.

Science Education for Elementary School Teachers. Harold E. Tannenbaum and Nathan Stillman. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1960. Pp. xii + 339. \$5.95.

Improving Your Spelling Program. Walter T. Petty. San Francisco: Howard Chandler, Publisher, 1959. Pp. 74. \$1.40.

Peter Gets the Chickenpox, Michael Gets the Measles, and Dear Little Mumps Child. Marguerite Rush Lerner, M.D. Minneapolis, Minn .: Medical Books for Children, 1959. \$2.75 each. A new series of well-illustrated medical books designed for children.

Art Aids for Elementary Teaching-A Handbook. (Revised Edition.) Irma Littler Paine. Minneapolis, Minn.: Burgess Publishing Company, 1959. Pp. vii + 135.

\$3.75.

Elementary Teachers Guide to Free Curriculum Materials. (16th Edition.) Edited by Patricia H. Suttles. Randolph, Wis.: Educators Progress Service, 1959. Pp. xiv + 346. \$6.50.

Teaching Art to Children; The Values of Creative Expression. Blanche Jefferson. Boston, Mass.: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1959. Pp. ix + 294. \$6.50.

SECONDARY

Dimensions, Units, and Numbers in the Teaching of Physical Sciences. Renee G. Ford and Ralph E. Cullman. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959. Pp. ix + 49. \$1.00. One of the Science Manpower Project monographs.

How to Improve the High-School Curriculum. Harold Alberty. Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, The Ohio State University, 1959. Pp. iv + 86. \$1.00. A resource guide

for curriculum workers.

The Economics of American Living. Harry W. Heckman. New York: Rand McNally & Company, 1959. Pp. 168. \$1.65. An introduction to the economic system of our

Modern General Science. Alan H. Humphreys. Austin, Steck Company, Publishers, 1959. Pp. 256. \$2.00. A worktext.

Guide to Modern English. Richard K. Corbin, Marguerite Blough, and Howard Vander Beek. Chicago:

Scott, Foresman and Company, 1960. Grade 9, Pp. 484, \$3.48; and

Grade 10, Pp. 556, \$3.56.

Modern High School Physics; A Recommended Course of (Second Edition.) Prepared members of the Science Manpower Project. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959. Pp. viii + 70. \$1.50.

Business. Everyday Consumer Wesley E. Scott, et al. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1959. Pp. x + 420. \$3.76.

Building Your Life. (Second Edition.) Judson T. and Mary G. Landis. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. Pp. 334. \$3.80.

The Dawning Space Age. H. E. Mehrens. Published by Civil Air Patrol, Ellington Air Force Base, Texas. Pp. 224. \$2.00. Also available for able from National Aviation Education Council, 1025 Connecticut Ave., N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Ivanhoe. Adaptation by Frances Imogene Griffin and Helen Marie Griffin, New York: Vantage Press, 1959. Pp. 113. \$2.75. Designed for

ages 10-14.

College

The Technical Institute in America ica. G. Ross Henninger. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

1959. Pp. xi + 276. \$6.00. The New American Guide to Colleges. Gene R. Hawes. New York The New American Library pp. World Literature, Inc., 1959.

256. \$.75, paperback. Roland M. General Chemistry. Chemical Whittaker. New York: Publishing Co., Inc., 1959. Pp. 761. \$12.50.

College Arithmetic. W. I. Layn, New York ton. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1980

Inc., 1959. Pp. ix + 200. Education, 1960-70. Edited by Dexter M. Book Financing zer. New York: McGraw-Hill Book

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Company, Inc., 1959. Pp. 304. \$2.00, paperbound.

GUIDANCE

Careers for Women in Retailing. Bulletin 271, 1959, Women's Bureau, U. S. Dept. of Labor. Pp. vi + 52. Available from U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. \$.25.

How to Choose a Correspondence School; A Guide for Youth, Adults, and Counselors. Homer Kempfer. Cambridge, Mass.: Bellman Publishing Company, 1959. Pp. 35. \$1.

GENERAL

School-Community Improvement: A Report of the Greenbrier County Program. L. Craig Wilson, et al. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Company, 1959. Pp. xiv + 350.

The Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook. Editor, Oscar Krisen Buros. Highland Park, N. J.: The Gryphon Press, 1959. Pp. xxvii + 1292. \$22.50.

Religious Concerns in Contemporary Education; A Study of Reciprocal Relations. Philip H. Phenix. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959. Pp. viii 108, \$3.25,

Hobbies; The Creative Use of Leisure. Margaret E. Mulac. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1959. Pp. xi + 271. \$3.95.

The United States to 1865. Michael Kraus. The United States since 1865. Foster Rhea Dulles. Ann Arbor, Mich.: The University of Michigan Press, 1959. Pp. xiii + 529 and ix + 546. \$7.50 each, paperback.

Business Dictionary. Louis C. Nanassy and William Selden. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960. Pp. 263. \$2.96.

Headspins of a Pedagog; Verse in Various Degrees of Giddiness. Jacob C. Solovay. Pp. 80. \$2.50. Available from author, Fort Hamilton High School, Brooklyn 9, N. Y.

Understanding Chemistry, Lawrence P. Lessing. New York: Interscience Publishers, Inc., 1959. Pp. 192. \$3.50.

New Pathways in Science. Sir Arthur Eddington, Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1959. Pp. x + 333. \$1.95. paperback.

How to Make Your Teaching Easier and More Effective, E. P. Harvey. Davenport, Ia.: Teaching Aids Company, 1959. Pp. xii + 67. \$2,95.

Family Life Education Contributes to the Preparation of Teachers. Clifford F. S. Bebell. New York: American Social Hygiene Association, 1959. Pp. 18. \$.20.

Children Discover Music and Dance; A Guide for Parents and Teachers. Emma D. Sheehy. New York: Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 1959. Pp. vi + 282. \$4.25.

The American Heritage Book of the Pioneer Spirit. New York: American Heritage Publishing Co., 1959. Pp. 400. \$12.95. Contains more than 480 pictures.

English for of Encyclopedia Home, School, and Office. Edited by Arthur Zeigler. New York: Arco Publishing Company, Inc., 1959. Pp. 504. \$3.00, cloth; \$1.50, paperbound.

Conditions of Work for Quality Teaching. Washington, D. C.: Department of Classroom Teachers, NEA, 1959. Pp. 157. \$1.25.

Teaching Study Habits and cills. Ralph C. Preston. New Skills. York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1959. Pp. vii + 55. \$1.00.

School Food Centers; Operating the School Lunch Program. N. L. George and Ruth D. Heckler. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1960. Pp. viii + 335. \$6.50.

A Reading Guide to Asia for Teachers, A 20-page booklet available from the World Confederation of the Organizations of the Teaching Profession, 1227 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

AUDIO-VISUALS

Speak My Language-Spanish for Young Beginners, Two 10" LP records with illustrated booklet New York: Dover Publications, Inc. \$4.95.

An Introduction to Ballet, Let's Look at Great Paintings, and Let's Put on a Play. Three new children's T.P albums available from Ottenheimer, Publishers, 4805 Nelson Ave., Baltimore 15, Md. \$4.95 each. including illustrated booklet. The Painting set includes a packet of eight full-color reproductions.

Educational Motion Pictures. 1960 Catalog. Bloomington, Ind.: Audio-Visual Center, Indiana University, 1960. Pp. 664.

Educators Guide to Free Tapes,

Scripts, and Transcriptions. (Sixth Edition.) Randolph. Wis.: Educators Progress Service. 1960. Pp. xiv + 225, \$5,75.

Improving Instruction: Budgeting Your Audio-Visual Program. K. C. Rugg. Bloomington, Ind .: Audio-Visual Center, Indiana University, 1960. Pp. 90. Single copies free.

Electricity: How to Make a Circuit (Using a Dry Cell). A 16mm sound film for primary and middle grades. Available from Encyclopoedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Ill. \$60, b & w; \$120, color.

Film-Viewlex Instant 35mm strip Previewer. This new desktop previewer is designed for teachers and audio-visual directors to provide speedy and convenient previewing of the increasing volume of filmstrips available for educational training. Additional infor-Viewlex mation available from Company, Inc., 35-01 Queens Blvd., Long Island City 1, N. Y.

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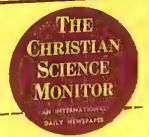
Modern Elementary Curriculum, Revised
William B. Ragan, University of Oklahoma, with
photo-comments and projects and problems prepared
by Celia Burns Stendler, University of Illinois
1960, 521 pp., \$6.00 (probable)

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Psychology For Effective Teaching
George J. Mouly, University of Miami
1960, 544 pp., \$6.00 (probable)

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Volume XXV

APRIL 1960

Number 8

A Preliminary Report

A Look at the Junior-High School

JAMES B. CONANT

Of the American public high school was published a little over a year ago. It dealt with the curriculum, grades 9 through 12, and I treated the four years as a unit whether the senior-high school was a three-year or four-year school. I no sooner finished my study than I began to hear of new developments affecting grades 7 and 8. It became evident that before I completed my final report I must have a look at what was going on in grades 7 and 8.

This—with the aid of my assistants—I have been doing; but, since the study is not complete, I shall report here only a few rather important developments which have come to my attention and indicate what appear to be some junior-high-school problems.

There is considerable difference of opinion as to how our elementary grades, junior-high school, and high school should be organized. While in my study I have found no overriding considerations to settle

James B. Conant, who recently completed a two-year study of the American high school, is now engaged in a study of the junior-high schools. Reported from an address made by Dr. Conant before the American Association of School Administrators in Atlantic City, New Jersey, February 15, 1960.

the controversy between the merits of a three-year and a four-year senior-high school, I have found many arguments in favor of an organization which provides an eighth grade of at least 125-150 pupils—an enrolment one usually does not find in the eight-year elementary school.

I have been convinced, also, from what we have seen and heard that the eighth grade should be departmentalized, with specialized teachers of the academic subjects (English, social studies, mathematics, science) and specialists in art, music, home economics, and industrial arts as well. And I am in-

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clined to the view of those who feel that the seventh grade should be considered as transitional between the selfcontained class of grades 1 through 6 and the fully departmentalized situation in grade 8. In the seventh grade I should advocate some departmentalization.

Clearly the density of population, the cost of transporting pupils to a central school, as well as the present building facilities, will often be determining factors in regard to what grades the juniorhigh school should include. The 6-6 system is found in many different parts of the United States, particularly in rural areas. It could be argued that a newly reorganized district might well consider organizing on the 6-6 basis especially when there is a very small enrolment in grades 7 and 8. One advantage of a combined junior- and senior-high school in one building is that the teachers and facilities can be shared jointly by both the senior- and junior-high-school students. A second advantage is that such an arrangement may facilitate, though not guarantee, good articulation in the program grades 7 through 12.

A possible question is: At what point, in terms of numbers enrolled, does the separation of the junior and senior schools become an economical undertaking? Building expenses and amortization enter the picture, especially since I am assuming that junior-high-school students should have an adequate gymnasium, auditorium, and li-

brary—facilities that are expensive to duplicate—as well as departmentalized instruction at least by grade

ATHLETICS OVEREMPHASIZED

These are all factors of importance, but I am sorry to report that in many localities interest in football and basketball has been almost a determining factor in regard to the junior-high school. I had not been aware that interscholastic rivalry involved the junior-high school, as well as the senior-high school. I venture to offer my sympathy to the superintendents in regard to the whole athletic business. I cannot help wondering if lead. ers in the community, as well as the educational profession, have done all they could to strengthen the hands of the superintendents, who in some localities are fighting an almost vicious overemphasis on athletics.

I have found increasing interest in the reading competence of the pupils and a tendency to introduce remedial reading and developmental tal reading in grades 7, 8, and 9, which is in addition to the regular English class. The use of reading levels as one of the major criterions for placing students in different groups in English and social studies in grades 7 through 9 seems to be on the increase.

I venture to think such tests are preferable to IQ tests since they seem to be more relevant and are easier for the general public of understand. Teachers' opinions, of

course, should be given great weight in any scheme of ability grouping.

Among the new trends to be found in a few schools is the identification of at least the highly gifted in the eighth grade. These students, having finished eighthgrade arithmetic at the end of the seventh grade, may start algebra in the eighth grade instead of the ninth. Early identification of the highly gifted seems to me to be a most promising development, yet opinion has not yet crystallized as to how large a percentage of the school should be included in this group.

There are many problems in this area. If as many as 20 percent of the eighth grade start algebra in that grade, by no means all of them will be taking the most advanced mathematics courses in the senior year. But this procedure should lead some pupils in the twelfth grade to a considerable amount of study in courses of college-freshman caliber. Coupled with the Advanced Placement Program, this earlier identification means highly gifted youth could finish college in three years instead of four. This shortening of the formal education period is important for those who are going on for study in medicine, law, and arts and sciences, Such a program is suitable Only for the very able, and there may be a danger in a few schools that some with insufficient ability Will be guided into the Advanced Placement Program. This early differentiation is another argument for an eighth grade of large size.

One of the most interesting developments in recent years which affects the lower grades, and indeed the whole system, is the introduction of what I shall call the "American approach to the teaching of a modern foreign language." At the risk of vastly over-simplifying a complicated subject, I venture to define the "American approach" as one based on a hearingspeaking introduction to the language and to contrast it with the traditional or European method which starts with translation and the memorization of vocabulary. The Modern Language Association has been sponsoring what I am calling the new American approach.

I think it is worthwhile to emphasize to administrators the contrast between this revolutionary approach and the traditional approach, for the difference has important consequences for the whole set-up of a school system. The proponents of the American approach claim that in a given number of years a pupil will proceed much further in a language than would be the case with the traditional approach, and, furthermore, the pupils start to speak the language at a relatively young age. In other words, the pupils start learning to think in the language almost be fore starting to read or write it. Eventually the goal of both methods is the same-namely, a mastery of the language.

The proponents of the American

method feel that the instruction should start preferably in the third grade and certainly in the seventh or eighth grade, though if the introduction to the first foreign language must be postponed until the ninth or tenth grade the method can still apply. Those who urge starting a foreign language by the American method in the early grades have made a strong case. However, the introduction of such instruction as early as grade 3 is expensive and, the country over, would require far more capable teachers than are likely to be available for many years. Therefore, I am inclined to think that unless a community has the funds, favorable public opinion, and really qualified teachers, instruction should be deferred until grade 7 or 8.

DANGERS

I think also that school administrators should make certain that the public understands that this new demand for introducing foreign languages in the lower grades carries with it certain dangers. The American public is always anxious for educational miracles, some royal and easy road to learning, and I am worried lest the words of the proponents of the American method may be misunderstood. Parents may come to think that their children can all become bilingual in French, for example, by the time they graduate from high school without doing any hard work. This is far from being the case.

The second danger which al-

ready manifests itself in some schools I have visited is that there will be a failure at the senior-high-school level to take advantage of the competence developed in the junior-high-school level by the use of the new American approach.

As I have gone around the country, I have noted that this whole problem of articulation between the junior-high school and the seniorhigh school is extremely important and that often it is the weakest link is the school system. The situation is made far more difficult, however, because of the introduction of the new American approach to foreign languages in the lower grades. Until such time as this new method becomes widely accepted by the teachers in all grades, sper cial attention should be directed by the superintendent to this problem of articulation.

Finally, I should like to state that when I report my findings to a lay audience (and you will recall that it is to school boards and citizens that I direct my words), I shall emphasize the supreme im portance to junior- and senior-high schools of their principals. Here leadership, or lack of it, seems to be of determining importance. refer to their leadership of teachers, the recruiting of new teachers, as well as the creation of an atmosphere of understanding between staff, parents, and pupils. A heavy responsibility rests on superintendents in finding and ap pointing the right people to these important posts.

APRIL

Space-Age Education Is Only One Factor

Sizing Up the Sixties

LLOYD W. ASHBY

In The Nation's Schools

HE past decade, in retrospect, has been one of turmoil, of wars hot and cold, of the ushering in of the space age. The past decade has also brought a great quickening of interest in—and criticism of—the public school. School administrators and other professional leaders sometimes have been caught up in the maelstrom of events. Balance has been difficult to maintain. And balance is greatly to be desired.

Now a new decade is dawning. But in a democracy do the functions of the schools change so greatly from decade to decade? At all times the goal is the development of each individual as far as his interests and capacities will per-

mit. The functions remain much the same: to create a literate society, to work toward the health of the individual, physically, mentally, and spiritually; to develop latent skills and talents that can make for a life as well as for a living; and to inculcate the characteristics of good citizenship at all levels.

What has happened since 1950 has not changed these basic functions. It is true that schools in general have placed greater relative emphasis on mathematics, seience, and foreign languages. Some of our people become rather hysterical at times in regard to the need for this trend. But must people be drafted to be scientists or engineers when they might prefer to be poets, social workers, lawyers, teachers, historians, or philosophers? Without the scientists and the engineers we would be lost in this modern world. But without a sense of direction stemming from the poets, philosophers, and spiritual leaders we are even more certainly lost.

Our educational program must be strengthened in order to achieve balance in the individual and in society. This needs desperately to be done regardless of the shifting gales of certain segments of public thought and expression.

Lloyd W. Ashby is Superintendent of Ridgewood, New Jersey, public schools. Reported from The Nation's Schools, LXV (January 1960), 49-51, 84, 85.

What of the decade ahead-the 1960's? Will man be in space flight? What of our relations with Russia? What of the worldwide population explosion? What of the economic future of our United States? And how do education and the public school relate to these and similar great problems of the decade ahead?

SPACE FLIGHT

Space flight itself is an exciting aspect but the by-products space experimentation may be more important than flight itself. The implications of the space age developments for our schools are at least in part as follows: (1) The breakthrough will be exploited in the next decade to the degree possible. (2) Schools and teachers must find the means to keep abreast of these developments-space-age workshops, such as recently sponsored by the Bergen County (New Jersey) Teachers Association, will be needed repeatedly over the nation. (3) "Some extraordinarily sober thinking is going to be required to ensure a sensible allocation of national resources to space ventures," as Dr. DuBridge, president of the California Institute of Technology, suggests.

With Russia, it would appear, we shall muddle along for the next decade, somehow avoiding the terrible contingency of a major war. The task of the school and the teaching profession in the next decade will be to try to understand the world situation and to help the

nation to be strong in all respectsin understanding and in leadership, as well as in science and technologv.

While it is certainly true that further experimentation will increase our knowledge of outer space in the future, it is an accomplished fact that technology and science have already reduced the size of our world, that the oceans have been all but climinated, and that for practical purposes the Russians are our next door neighbors.

BETTER UNDERSTANDING

Student exchanges at the secondary level with the schools of Russia may well be a development of the next decade. Administrators and teachers have the definite obligation to be students of Soviet life. The Russian language will be taught more widely. We need to understand the Soviet schools better. The descriptions of these schools brought back by various individuals are like nothing as much as the reports of the three blind men who touched the elephant. Two specific impressions seem, however, to prevail: The Russians, like some Americans, are very dissatisfied with their schools, and (2) they are making moves toward a system resembling ours more than was formerly the case. The same seems to be true of many European nations. Let's not make the mistake of aping the system the U.S.S.R. and other tions are in the process of discarding Lat. ing. Let us, rather, develop as we APRIL

have in the past our own indigenous system related to our own problems and to our own people. Any other course is ridiculous if not suicidal for the nation.

POPULATION EXPLOSION

The worldwide population explosion will affect every person in the decade ahead, and most certainly and seriously the children now in our schools. Estimates of the world population (now about 2,500 million) for the year 2000 range from 4,000 million to 6,000 million. For the United States, now with a population of 170 million, estimates are for 210 million in 1975, and 300 million in 2000. Biologists are concerned lest such growth slowly but surely outrun the earth's potentials-this in spite of current perplexing surpluses in the United States.

The implications for education are clear. It is certain that our citizens must learn the importance of the conservation of natural resources. And our people must give careful thought to the further exploitation of now largely unused resources, the greatest of which are to be found in the oceans, which cover a major portion of the earth's surface. Education in this critical field is essential on a worldwide basis. On a worldwide basis, also, education, in the larger sense of the word, must hasten the day when acceptable principles of birth control are encouraged and intelligently practiced.

All the peoples of the world of

our generation have a tremendous obligation to future generations in regard to these matters. The school, as an agency of society, is deeply involved—whether this is recognized or not. It is important to learn foreign tongues, and we will do so as the need arises. The matter of resources in relation to population growth is, however, a problem infinitely more fundamental, deserving of a high priority at all school levels, including adult education.

ECONOMIC FUTURE

The economic future for the coming decade, according to business prophets and economic indicators, appears to be a rosy one, caused in large part by a growing population calling for more and more goods and services. In the precarious world situation it seems almost certain that we shall continue to spend heavily for modern instruments of war and for research into the space age. Relatively, other types of research may languish as a result. Taxpayers may revolt increasingly at the only level where they can exercise direct control, that is the local level-and this means schools. Whether increased state aid or federal aid will come fast enough to relieve overburdened local property taxes is a serious question.

Meanwhile it is touch-and-go as to what effects inflation may have, to an even greater degree, on our total economy. One thing is certain: The whole problem of our economic system represents an area in which a vast amount of education and understanding is needed.

In each of these broad areas, education in its most liberal sense is essential to a solution and to the general welfare of the people. The same is true for other crucial problems of our time—problems of rising expectations of the less privileged throughout the world, problems of race relations at home and abroad, problems of automation and the resultant shorter work week, to mention but a few.

We can be sure that the next decade will be a busy one for the school administrator. There will be continued pressures in housing, staffing, and financing. But more important, our problems come now with new dynamic qualities and with a cumulative impact as national and international issues. School objectives and curriculums must, more than ever, command the attention and study of the school administrator.

NATIONAL CURRICULUM

Because of the complexity of the total situation facing us, I believe that the proponents of a national curriculum commission should be given encouragement for a full and frank discussion in this area, assuming that two major assumptions undergird the proposal in its entirety: (1) that the commission have no authority to implement its recommendations other than the weight of the logic which they carry, thus preserving local initiative

and local prerogatives; and (2) that the financial support for such a project come with no strings attached from whatever the source.

Movements and influences on the schools now come too fast, require too much research, and are too costly in staff and personnel to get the job done on a local, state, or regional basis. Furthermore, curriculum changes and emphases, whether we like it or not, will be increasingly national rather than local in scope. This is already happening to a considerable degree. Would it not be better to systematize this rather than leave it to the chance influence of various unrelated and uncoordinated agencies? Such questions need to be raised seriously and answered promptly by the profession.

This is in no sense an argument for trading local control for federal control. It is rather an effort to find a way to get the research and investigation done on a level that can give the local community a chance, at least with intelligent alternatives, to develop a program suited at once to local needs and national requirements. Unless this can somehow be accomplished, we may one day find an unwelcome program being imposed in the way of a federal system of schools as the answer to some future national emergency.

Such a commission could be the big development of the next decade in influencing the course of public education in the United States

We Need the "Second-Eschelon" Pool

An Issue in Doubt

GEORGE GREISEN MALLINSON

In The Educational Forum

INCE 1957 when the Russians launched their first satellite, much has been said about the optimal use of the talents, abilities, and skills of the American people. There has been a great deal of concern that, for a number of reasons, much of this potential has not been exploited. If true, it is especially disturbing because the failure to do so is a threat to the national security.

This point is made eminently clear in a phrase from the report entitled Pursuit of Excellence, published by the Rockefeller Brothers Fund in 1958: "... an undiscovered talent, a wasted skill, a misapplied ability is a threat to the capacity of a free people to survive."

Perhaps the surprise launching of the first satellite may be blamed for the panic and hysteria and for the frantic and, in some cases misguided, efforts to "do something" about the nurture of talent. It is clear that since that time an astonishing lack of faith in public education has been exhibited.

The situation has been made worse by the rise of selfappointed evangelists who emerged from the bushes and rushed into the breach. In order to resolve what they considered to be a crisis, they have proposed solutions that have long since been discredited, and have sought to tear down what has proved through experience to be eminently sound.

Apparently the chief qualifications for such evangelists include (1) a lost and in many cases discredited cause that they have long championed, (2) a patent disregard of the accomplishments of American education, (3) a lack of knowledge about and sympathy with the problems of mass education, and (4) inflexible prejudices.

Among the leaders of this cult are Bestor and Rickover. After having listened to both these men excoriate American education, the writer is reminded of the famous statement, "Wine, women, and song never made a fool of any man. They merely provided him with a wider stage and a larger audience." In this case the wine, women, and song have been the shortages of trained personnel and the launching of the Russian satellites.

George Greisen Mallinson is Dean of the School of Graduate Studies, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo. Reported from The Educational Forum, XXIV (January 1960), 147-56. The writer wishes to make clear that he does not challenge the fact that these men may honestly believe they are speaking with integrity. Neither does he wish to deny them the right to speak forth or be wrong. The tragedy, however, is that the lay population has been far more willing to listen to their misstatements and venom than to turn to those in the profession for the facts.

DISPELLING THE MYTHS

Educators have not been "asleep at the switch." They are awareand have been aware for a long time-of the problems that now beset the nation. They are able, when given the opportunity, to dispel many of the myths and misconceptions which the mistaken evangelists have encouraged. But no informed person in the profession would wish to substitute complacency for myth. This is no time for America to sit back and assume that "everything will come out in the wash" and that "things are not so bad as they seem." Nothing could be further from the truth.

The United States is now facing, and for many years to come will face, shortages in all types of trained personnel. In fact, it is probable that these shortages will become more serious before they are alleviated. The shortage may become critical as a result of the criminal disregard for the fact that buildings and other facilities in colleges and universities are totally inadequate to provide the space re-

quired for training the needed personnel.

This is a time to examine the extent of these shortages, identify the causes, and propose some solutions that are consistent with good educational practice.

SHORTAGES TODAY

1. Shortages in Professional Personnel for Science and Technology. -In this category of personnel are those persons whose occupations fall under such headings as chemist, geologist, physicist, mathematician, biologist, and engineer. In general, therefore, the category includes all those persons having completed the minimum of a bachelor's degree in one of the areas commonly termed "science." It is likely that at least 100,000 of these trained persons could be absorbed into the economy every year. Yet, the colleges and universities are annually graduating less than 60, 000 students with bachelor's, master's, and doctor's degrees in these fields.

2. Shortages in Technical Personnel.—These are the persons qualified to serve as medical technicians, refrigerator mechanics, automatic lathe set-up men, master mechanics, dental technicians, electronics technicians, automobile service managers, pipeline operators, and appliance mechanics. The annual need for trained personnel in this category may be as high as 250,000. Yet, fewer than 50,000 are trained each year in formalized educational programs. Such formal

training is obtained through accredited trade schools, two-year terminal programs in colleges and junior-college programs, and organized apprenticeships in industry. The losses to our economy for our failure to provide training facilities in this area are staggering. They amount to many times more than the cost of an educational program for training persons in these needed skills.

3. Shortages of Teachers.-The secondary schools could use each year between 12,000 and 14,000 teachers to fill positions in the various fields of science and mathematics. Yet, the annual supply of teachers for such positions now ranges between 7,000 and 9,000. Many of these positions are assigned to "stop-gap" personnel who do not have adequate training. They are trained to teach in other fields and are recruited to staff the classes in science and mathematics simply because they are the only ones available. The vast majority of these teachers are conscientious but fail to reach the desired standards of teaching through no fault of their own. It is completely unjustifiable to criticize these teachers. One could hardy place the first person he saw in the pilot's seat of a jet airplane and then excoriate him for his incompetence. Further, no one with common sense would assign pilots by such a method. Unfortunately, the same "sense" is not always manifested in classroom assignments.

4. Scientific Illiteracy of the

Lay Population.—The low level of scientific literacy of the lay population is almost legendary. It is probably more disturbing than the problems involved with obtaining adequate numbers of scientific personnel. In general, the quality of our facilities—even though too few are available—is excellent. However, our programs for general education science have received relatively little attention. The recent uproar has worsened the situation.

The scientific illiteracy of the lay population is evidenced by numerous facts. Every year more than one-quarter billion dollars is spent on fortune tellers, mediums, astrologers, and similar quackery. It is equally appalling to note that each vear in the United States more than five times as much money is spent on patent medicines as on ethical prescription drugs. A common stereotype of a "scientist" is the slick-tongued operator on television, properly white-coated and mustached, selling nostrums with a pseudoscientific "pitch."

SOLUTIONS

American education has its inadequacies. Educators have serious
problems. What are their solutions?
Those of the zealots and evangelists are frequently so unsound as to
be ridiculous. The philosophy of
"skim the best, and shoot the rest,"
for example, simply will not work.
It is tragic that 50 percent of those
who have superior intellect according to test scores do not complete
college. Yet, if by some means the

entire group of superior intellect as judged by IQ score could be persuaded to complete college and enter careers in science and technology, the number still would be far short of meeting the needs for trained personnel.

The educable, "second-echelon pool" must be exploited. The opposite attitude taken by one of the most vigorous critics of American education when he discussed the nurture of those students with IQ's of 135 or higher is evidence of shoddy thinking. When questioned about the need for extending educational opportunities for those with IQ's below 135, his comment was, "H . . ., let them dig ditches!" If this were the only future for these persons, and they were all set to work, the country would be amply furrowed!

The "pursuit of excellence," namely, the provision of maximal educational opportunity for all persons in all parts of the ability spectrum, is a staggering challenge. The facts point out that talent and aptitude for science, as well as for other areas, depends on many factors other than the IQ. Thus, to exploit these aptitudes, educational opportunity must be broadened not narrowed. It means facilities for training personnel for all types of specialized occupations at all

levels. It implies also an adequate general education program in science for persons not entering the scientific and technological professions. They are the persons who, in the long run, establish the climate in which science and technology flourish.

This point is well expressed in the Rockefeller Brothers Report:

"Our conception of excellence must embrace many kinds of achievement at many levels."

The issue, therefore, is clear. Any philosophy that seeks to educate the few, will also serve to frustrate the efforts to improve the supply of trained personnel. The facts point out that professional and technical education can be absorbed by persons of average ability as well as by those at the top Thus, intemperate criticism based on false premises will only lead to the destruction of the means for accomplishing the tasks that lie ahead. We must pursue excellence wherever there exists human minds. The task will be expensive and difficult. It will require the facilities of all types of educational institutions, both the public and private

If these facts are not faced, and the sacrifices made, the issue will be in doubt. The issue in doubt will be our own survival.

Lipstick or Launching Pads?

"No wonder we are short of scientists," complains one college dean, "when all the best chemists are hired on graduation by cosmetic firms to make new lipsticks." From Mississippi Educational Advance.

The Public and Private University

LAWRENCE A. KIMPTON

HERE is a saying among lawyers that all family quarrels are over money. In the controversy between the public and private institutions of higher education—in this family quarrel—the main issue does seem to be money, though it certainly has other dimensions and indeed deep and far-reaching implications.

It is no secret, I suppose, that the private colleges and universities are hard up. There are many reasons for this unfortunate situation, among them the inflation and its impact on endowment yield, the enormous number of new causes that compete for the philanthropic dollar, and the widening gap between the cost of education and the tuition charge that the private institution dares to make.

I should add, however, that actually the major private universities are not hard up absolutely; they are becoming hard up relatively. Relative, that is to say, to the public universities, which have grown immensely in size, stature, and wealth. It is true, I believe, that in the first decade of this century and on into the twenties, the University of Chicago towered in the Middle West. Our competition for money, faculty, and students was with Harvard, Yale, and Columbia, and our attitude was

Lawrence A. Kimpton is Chancellor of the University of Chicago, Illinois. Reported from an address made by Chancellor Kimpton before the American Association of Land-Grant Colleges and State Universities at St. Louis, Missouri, November, 1959.

friendly but patronizing toward our surrounding public sisters. I hope we are still friendly, but there is nothing patronizing today about our attitude toward our neighboring universities of the Midwest—and frankly, we are scared to death of the University of California at Berkeley. Harvard remains smug and Yale aloof, but I can assure you that they are scared, too.

This situation has all the makings of the family quarrel I referred to, and there has already been a great deal of fussing and feuding. I first became aware of the growing dimensions of the quarrel when the low birth rate of the thirties made it difficult to recruit students. It then was shamelessly stated by recruiters for some private institutions that public universities were socialistic in concept and Godless in instruction; that one could not get a decent education in a public university among the hordes of undergraduates; that social standing and job opportunity were conferred only by the private institutions. The same sort of thing was going on, though in a more subdued way, in the recruitment of the ever-scarce good faculty member. Department heads in private institutions muttered darkly about loyalty oaths, legislative meddling, heavy teaching loads, and lack of freedom for investigation.

The case against the public university, if one could call it that, probably reached its crescendo in the field of money-raising. Here, all the socialistic and Godless charges were repeated, but a lot of new twists were given to the arguments. It was claimed that public education was extravagant and wasteful and that the private institution could do a better job at lower cost. Corporations were told that they could expect competent research people only from the private universities. (That is, until the DuPont Company discovered that it had more scientists from the University of Illinois than from any other university.) Finally, it was asserted that quantity and quality could not go together and that the public institution dealt in inferior mass production while the private university dealt only in superior students in small, well-conducted

I think it fair to say that the private institutions started the quarrel, but I would be remiss if I let you believe that our public sisters took all this lying down. They denied every allegation. They de-

fended themselves, but they did not rest their case with a defense; they moved on to the attack. They suggested, if they did not say right out, that the private institution was a relic of a bygone period before the public had assumed responsibility for education. They even implied that the private institution served no other purpose today beyond giving the sons and daughters of the rich a phony accent and the dubious privilege of sporting the old school tie.

PRETTY ROUGH STUFF

Now all of this is pretty rough stuff, but it still might have been ignored as one of those family brawls that pass, leaving the members more affectionate even than before. Anyway, there were students enough for all on the horizon. And as the economic situation improved, money was easier to come by. But—within the last several years—a sharp, hard, and single issue has arisen which proves to be far more divisive than the wild, free-swinging fights of the past.

The private universities now have had to raise their tuition until the cost differential between public and private is no longer nominal; it is substantial. More than that, the private institutions would like-indeed, will be forced—to raise their tuition charges even more within the next few years. Here is the rub. To put the problem in the crassest terms possible—it is hard to market a product at

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a fair price when down the street someone is giving it away. Surely it has been only natural that the presidents of private institutions, singly and collectively, should suggest to the heads of neighboring public universities that they raise their tuition rates, thereby reducing this ruinous competition. The suggestions have been received by the public institutions without enthusiasm; in fact, they thought it was a lousy idea and said so.

They have their reasons and they can state them emphatically and persuasively: Free public education is a popular cause. Increasing tuition is not a way to win friends or influence voters. They could not get by with it in the legislature. Moreover, moneys received from increased tuition would only be subtracted from the general legislative appropriation, and public funds thus saved would be syphoned off into roads, works, and other charges on the state's resources. But perhaps the most profound reason-and one that I deeply respect-concerns the central philosophy of education. Briefly stated, learning is a gift which each state owes to all its sons and daughters.

CALL IN COUNSELORS

Here, then, we find the issue fairly joined, and on both financial and moral grounds. Now in family quarrels, it is not uncommon to call in a minister, a marriage counselor, or occasionally even a judge, who tries to reconcile the opposing

views, usually seeking a higher ground from which a better perspective can be obtained. These people are usually right, and occasionally soothing, but too often they ignore the point that the only way to live together is to find a way to live together.

If you are going to have a quarrel in higher education, these wise counselors suggest, this is a poor time to have it. We live in a divided world, and higher education is probably the key to the survival of Western civilization. The only thing that should concern us is excellence in higher education. More than this, diversity, whether in education or in anything else, is a long-established and valued American principle. We do not want a monolithic system of higher education; we need precisely the kind of variety that public and private provide. And, if there develops a little competition between them, this also follows an old and valued American principle.

Now this is the stuff of which counseling is made, and I have listened to and indulged in a lot of it in my time. It is often true, it is edifying, and, if it is well done, everybody feels just dandy—for a little while. But hortatory admonitions are not solutions to real problems and may even keep us from facing the issues. There are real issues here, and there is no point in dodging them by making a high-sounding emotional appeal.

Let us face these real issues. If each of us has a case let each state his case. If it is believed that each of us is doing the same thing in the same way, then there is no such thing as a case for the private university, or a case for the public university. I am one who believes that each has a case.

TO EACH HIS OWN CASE

Why should not we in private education admit very frankly and without invidious comparison that we exist to train an intellectual elite who have already proved that they are worthy of a higher education? Our private institutions should be highly selective at all levels of entrance, and, as a result, they will be and should remain comparatively small. Like most selective organizations our private institutions will charge all the traffic will bear, but not more than the traffic will bear. I mean by this that the tuition charge will be high enough so that it will bear a substantial part of the cost, or even more than that, of the education of the young person, but a number of scholarships will be provided for those who are aristocratic in brains but not in purse.

We can make some other statements which I think are true. Classes will be smaller, and more attention will be paid to the individual. There will be more opportunity for flexibility and experimentation in curriculum and teaching methodology. The private university does not have to be so immediately responsive to public needs, and it should and indeed

must be prepared to experiment, to find new ways, and to provide a stimulating leadership for all higher education. It can make more mistakes than the public university—and I ought to know.

And, all right, let us throw in a little snob appeal. We do every place else in American life, and I do not know why educators have to hold up their hands in holy horror at such a thought. The appeal is snobbism at its highest level: "You will be with an intellectual elite where the very best attention possible will be given to your education."

These are the rudiments of a case, I suggest, for private higher education. It is limited to those who have already proved themselves to be outstanding; it is small enough to be flexible and viable; and particular care and attention will be lavished on those fortunate ones who belong to this intellectual elite. People of means can be asked to contribute to such an enterprise out of their desire to encourage the recognition and the progress of the uncommon man

The case for public higher education is the opposite of this in most ways. There is a great need for a regional institution of higher learning that is immediately responsive to the needs of its own area because it is a creature and a creation of its public. Every young person in America is entitled to the opportunity for an education, and the public university symbolizes the kind of hope and

promise that America has always represented. Of course it will be larger—it has to be. Of course it will have a higher percentage who drop out because they are unequal to the opportunity. But the opportunity must exist. The public university as it meets the needs, both individual and regional, of its area is the symbol and the actuality of the democracy that is America.

must speak of this deeply troubling matter of tuition, and here I suggest the outlines of a solution which may be unsatisfactory to the public group; but let me have a try at it. All would agree that we must have more money for all higher education. You of the public institutions are no better off than we. Your legislative appropriations have increased substantially in the last 10 years, but they have not kept pace with the inflation, and not one of you has a physical plant adequate, even in prospect, to meet the needs of 1975. You need all the money you can get or are even likely to get, and you know it. Is there anything intrinsically wrong with your increasing your tuition well beyond the present levels though still well below the private-university tuition, as long as you do not exclude anyone in your state from receiving the opportunity for an education. This means only that you ask the

young people of your state to contribute to their education what they can afford but no more than that. Then you could still say with all honesty that anyone in your state is entitled to an education and will receive it if he is concerned to have the opportunity.

We of private education would enthusiastically join you in selling this idea to your legislators and to

the people of your states.

You might well ask at this point what difference would remain between public and private education. A world of difference would still remain, for the principle of private education would be careful selection and the principle of public education would be a broad inclusion. But this proposal would be a way of assisting the private institutions in doing something they have to do and assisting yourselves in something that you also are going to have to do in some fashion at some point.

I do not pretend that these suggestions are a final solution to our problem, but that they may have some value in providing guidelines for men of good will who honestly wish to see an end to this divisiveness. We must help each other in the days to come in order to bring more support to both our houses, or surely a plague will fall

on them.

HE Council for Financial Aid to Education reports that America's colleges and universities will need at least \$11.5 billion by 1967 in additional money for expansion.

Is It Parasitic, Monopolistic, and Dogmatic?

Why Teachers Dislike Merit Rating

C. CURRIEN SMITH
In Overview

EACHERS, judging by the time and energy they expend on sometimes fallacious and often extraneous arguments, seem to be opposed to merit rating. When asked to give their reasons they will generally give one of three: (1) a teacher's worth is impossible to measure; (2) merit rating is nothing but a fiscal device; (3) the principle of merit is sound but it won't work.

None of these reasons really gets to the heart of the matter. It becomes necessary to take a much broader view. True, merit rating can be shown to be accompanied by inconsistencies, contradictions, and insults to human dignity and intelligence. A good hard look at merit rating from a needed scientific-democratic point of view will reveal it to be: (1) untenable intellectually; (2) disintegrative

psychologically; (3) punitive philosophically; (4) destitute economically; and (5) oppressive politically.

Merit rating is intellectually untenable because it is irrational. Fraught with contradictions, it is oblivious to the negative results of its original hypothesis. It is defended on the grounds that it "rewards" merit, but it is administered in a manner that violates the premise. It is defended on the grounds that it attracts and holds able teachers, though evidence indicates that the ablest and most socially knowledgeable teachers look on it with shame and disgust. It is defended on the grounds that it provides higher average salaries for teachers, but evidence shows that this is not so. It is defended as if with the voice of the teachers, while the voice is actually that of the administrator. It is defended as if with the voice of science and democracy, but is administered by the hand of the authoritarian.

Merit rating is disintegrative psychologically partly because it is competitive in a situation that calls for cooperation. People do not like to be singled out for special consideration among their close colleagues—favorably or unfavorably. Merit rating is disintegrative psychologically also because it imposes

C. Currien Smith is Professor of Education at New York State Relege for Teachers, Albany. ported from Overview, I (February 1960), 41-44. a threat. It is disintegrative psychologically in its assumption that money not only is a desirable and effective incentive but that merit payments are "rewards" for "outstanding" service. Teachers' salaries are not "rewards." They are the subsistence which makes it possible for the teacher to devote his time to his calling.

PUNITIVE PHILOSOPHICALLY

Merit rating is punitive philosophically not only because it is so constituted as to penalize a majority while "rewarding" a minority, but also because it is retributional. "Why should I bat my brains out to get the same salary as the joker next to me who doesn't give a damn!" These are the words of a young teacher who has not been initiated into the mysteries of merit rating. He is working within a 10-month automatic salary schedule with a substantial base, achieved by a strong state teachers' association through a long series of battles. It has not occurred to him that there are various degrees and interpretations of "giving a damn" and that even his degree may not come within the lowliest of the percentages whence comes the judgment day. But this is not the worst part. The crucial question is: Will merit rating rehabilitate that joker and cause him to render a more wholesome service to the society which intends, in any case, to continue his employment?

Common sense dictates that em-

ploves who are not capable of performing their duties at a level of efficiency commensurate with the minimum that can be obtained under existing conditions of supply and demand should be directed into other lines of endeavor. In other words, the only solution to incompetence is dismissal. But this calls for courage and determination, plus valid and reliable decisions on the part of the administrator. Where there is doubt, hesitation to dismiss is excusable, but the practice of withholding increments in such cases can hardly be expected to correct the situation. Any employe worth keeping is worth encouraging. The kind of leadership that achieves wholesome followership does not need a switch.

DESTITUTE ECONOMICALLY

Merit rating is destitute economically. It has the characteristics of a parasite. It is rarely autogenetic. It depends on the prior existence of a substantial salary base for all, plus automatic increments. Remove this base and the parasite must also die. Allow the parasite to flourish and it will kill the base and destroy itself. Merit rating cannot be equally available to all. There must be percentages, and the percentages must draw their premiums from the resources of the body. Wherever there is cream there must have been milk. Take out the cream and what is left is weak and without nourishment. Stop the milk supply and there

will be no more cream. Merit rating does not *create* cream, it simply separates it and, invariably, distributes the "plunder" to the "victorious party."

OPPRESSIVE POLITICALLY

Merit rating is oppressive politically, largely because the people who are directly affected by it are not the ones who originate it, put it into operation, and administer it. Inexperienced teachers-influenced by naive or incompetent administrators-may sometimes vote for a merit rating schedule and thus become a party to its inauguration. But merit rating cannot prevail for long in a democratic-scientific atmosphere. It is usually imposed from above and is rarely thoroughly understood by the majority of the staff prior to its adoption.

Merit rating is oppressive politically because it is arbitrary. It is based on subjective, unreliableand consequently unpredictablejudgments. Salary scales based on objective considerations-such professional degrees and years of experience-do not satisfy the criterions for merit rating. Standards for certification must be established at a level that will permit an adequate supply of qualified workers. If there is no mystery, prospective employes can assay their chances against objective criterions. If the standards are too high, and prior notice is available, prospective employes can look elsewhere. It is only after employes are captive that merit rating can work, and

then only for the time that tyranny is practically inescapable.

Merit rating is oppressive politically because it is administratively irresponsible. If it is truly merit rating, it cannot be administered responsibly because there is no objective base to serve as a point of reference. If there are no percentages and the standards are clear, objective, and reasonable, anyone who qualifies for certification can qualify for merit. Since teaching effectiveness cannot be measured reasonably, and since, at any rate, no sound basis for salary determination would be supplied by the measurement, the only defense for withholding the merit reward is percentages. arithmetic of "You have merit, of course, but only a certain percentage can be chosen. It is out of my hands. Per, haps later your turn will come." Obviously, the turn never comes for more than the percentages allow.

Irresponsibility reaches the saturation point when the administration adopts the "democratic" procedure of working with a committee. The committee may be com posed entirely of administrative personnel-including some depart ment heads-but it may also in clude one or two classroom teach ers considered "meritorious" for one reason or another. The committee advises and recommends but has no authority for final decisions. which properly are an obligation of the chief administrative member cial. No committee

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likely to provide more than a vague report of what happened in "executive" sessions, the attitude seeming to be "see the boss." When the "boss" is approached and the "percentage" brush-off is not successful, the answer is apt to be "You have merit, of course, but the committee did not include you among its majority selection."

MERIT SALARY PAYMENTS

A merit salary schedule cannot be classified as truly merit rating when it is administered objectively by an administration which conforms to scientific-democratic principles. It goes without saving that such an administration is a captive of conditions beyond its immediate control. When "promotional increments" are assigned honestly, fairly, and objectively on the basis of educational qualification, experience, and job classifications, classroom teachers can accept their fates with equanimity. There is no mystery, no secrecy, and no threat to personal dignity. The entire staff can proceed confidently toward the ultimate alleviation of whatever injustices exist. Such opportunity does not exist under the despotic atmosphere of merit rating.

It has been the purpose here to try to look beneath the surface of what is generally known as "merit rating" with a view to discovering the factors inherent in the practice which causes it to exercise a demoralizing influence on the group. An attempt has been made to establish the point that the morale-shattering component of merit rating is not an inherent quality of merit salary payments. Merit salary payments and merit rating are, more often than not, associated with each other, but merit salary payments can be thought of more properly as a *symptom* of a disease rather than the disease itself.

Merit rating is best described as a point of view or as a pattern of thinking. It is authoritarian rather than scientific. It is retributional rather than operational. It is whimsical rather than systematic. It is irrational rather than rational. It is contemptuous of the rights and needs of employes, is parasitic, monopolistic, individualistic, and dogmatic.

Practically without exception, responsibility for the existence of merit rating rests on the chief administrative official rather than on the teachers, school board, or citizens at large. It rests on administrators not because they originate or favor it, but because they do not provide leadership that would prevent the introduction of practices detrimental to wholesome group morale. If administration has a function, a part of that function is to create conditions conducive to good group morale and to correct conditions obviously detrimental to efficient democratic operation. It only on this basis that a scientific-democratic official can keep his own selfrespect, without which he can hardly hope to earn the respect of others.

A Program for Character Building

Our Most Dangerous Neglect

JOHN E. GRINNELL In Phi Delta Kappan

ATTACKS on the wildness or irresponsibility of youth are always fashionable. And there seems always to be a tendency among adults to blame somebody else for not cultivating in children-before they get in trouble-the sense of values and civilized behavior so urgently needed. Too many parents do not know what values they themselves respect. The churches have-at best-a limited influence. Social workers say that the teaching of ethical values is not their work. The teachers say they are already overburdened. What can we do?

First of all, we must accept, as tribal elders once did, responsibility for the total rearing of youth and become involved in a great and continuous effort. We must realize that a really effective program will entail school, home, community, and government working together with the understanding that no one of these alone can produce the wise and good citizens and parents our civilization needs.

The schools can take the leadership in an active program, employing among others the following means:

1. Sports.-All children should be swept into school and community sports appropriate to their age, sex, and strength. No one able to

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participate should be left out, and all should learn several sports and physical skills. Emphasis should be placed on good sportsmanship, fair play, and doing one's best, win or lose.

2. Hobbies.-The intense interest generated by hobbies should be nurtured as zealously in school and community as any training of the mind. Children with real hobbies are usually too busy to hang around where mischief is brewed. Attention to detail, resourcefulness, sharing, and respect for the genuine are all character qualities that grow out of hobbies.

3. Art and Music.-The appre ciation and production of art and music should begin in the grades and be promoted by home and community throughout the years of growing up. Character education here depends on value judgments in recognizing excellence of technique nique, sincerity, and imaginative power in the arts (music, movies, painting, architecture, etc.) and in distinguishing between the real and the artificial in other types of hu-

man behavior. The improvement of taste, on a large scale or a small one, is not and never can be the expected result of blind chance. Teachers and sponsors in school and community must, therefore, be persons with superior training and with demonstrated critical judgment.

SELFGOVERNMENT ACTIVITIES

4. Selfgovernment.-No activity of the schools or community has been of more value in the development of character traits that point away from delinquency and toward good citizenship than youth participation in selfgovernment enterprises in all forms. Youth learn through such activities that people must work together rather than at cross purposes. They come to appreciate the need for thorough study of problems and issues in their environment. They learn the arts of compromise and the extent to which any organized group depends on the responsibility of its members.

Practice teaches them to be sincere and honest in their dealings with the group. The opinions of their peers provide rewards for those who prove dependable, fair, and modest, as well as penalties for those who are unwilling to subordinate selfish ends to the common good. The urgency of combining school and community efforts in such activities needs to be emphasized.

5. Character Clubs.—Other important activities for giving youth

experiences that should result in further rounding and firming of character are the youth clubs such as Hi-Y, Boy and Girl Scouts, youth auxiliaries of some of the more idealistic lodges, and church affiliated vouth groups. Their effectiveness depends on the character and training of the sponsor and the quality of youth leadership. Again, there should be more open and collaboration between constant teachers and townspeople in fashioning and earrying out action programs in these clubs.

6. Community Improvement Clubs.-Clubs for the improvement of school and community, whatever they are called, provide excellent means for building character in youth as well as for focusing community attention needed programs and facilities and in locating and combating neighborhood influences for delinquency and crime. Participation of youth in launching and supervising various projects for supplying wholesome recreation in the community can be expected to result in better communities and more purposeful youth. The trouble is that few communities have tried this on a really significant scale. The success of these and other projects such as teen canteens and Little League baseball should suggest the wisdom of more widely based programs.

7. Involvement with Nature.— Outdoor education is being increasingly recognized as important in orienting the growing child to the earth on which he lives and in giving him reverence for all living things. Urban life, in particular, tends to cause youth to have exaggerated opinions of man's power and importance. Even more perilous to his wholesome development, he loses touch with the subtle beauties of earth and sky and feels no chastening wonder at the order and complexity of nature.

Indeed a youth's preoccupation with automobiles, juke boxes, TV, and drive-ins leaves little opportunity for feeling much respect for or interest in the earth about him. We need a resurgence of outdoor activity. Young people can thereby learn not only the beauties of their country, but selfreliance and re-

sponsibility.

8. A Social Program.-Last, but certainly not least, of the means of character development in youth concerns the social life. Here, if anywhere, we have gone astray. In our schools and in our communities we have left to youth itself, even at junior-high-school age, most of the direction or lack of direction of social life. Is it any wonder that "going steady" now infects many children in early highschool years and results in marriage before either partner is in any sense prepared for it? Is it any wonder that already highly social youth dominate the social life of the school and equally gifted but normally shy teen-agers are allowed to become socially inadequate if not actually antisocial?

In the classroom we work hard

to help the child who is weak in mathematics to gain some of the skills the other children have. In the social realm what do we do? For the most part, we bury our heads in the sand. Around us we see social rebels, ruinous marriages, school failures, heartbreak. whole matrix of society can crumble if we don't recognize and plan constructively in school and town for the proper social education of our youth.

IMPORTANT PART

It is later than we think. Even the intellectual life is not so important in the forming of character and the finding of happiness as is the steady, temperate, social development of the young. The answer must surely be a carefully planned and supervised social program for adolescents under competent adult advisement and including a large measure of youth participation in planning and implementation.

If teachers now in training or in service will commit themselves wholeheartedly to such a comprehensive program of character education for youth as the one I have outlined, they will feel themselves to be vital parts of the finest adventure the teaching profession has ever known. They will be glad to be alive in such an age and will be proud to be designers and builders of a bright new world. No other direction, no other course in education is half so important or fraught with exciting possibilities.

The Triumph of "Achievement" over Inquiry in Education

HERBERT A. THELEN

In The Elementary School Journal

RINCIPALS, teachers, parents, professors, or practice teachers who try to improve instruction in the classroom soon find themselves in a trap. It is a fascinating trap built by people who know better. The fact that they built the trap very much against their will does not make the trap any less a trap. But it does show that one can get swept along by forces at work in the larger society.

In big, broad terms, the trap is the conflict between the Organization Man, who continually seeks to reassure himself of his place in society, and the Inquiring Man, who seeks to better himself and his society. In narrower terms, the conflict is between the way we try to teach children and the way we measure what they have learned. In middle-sized terms, the conflict is between education and achievement as school goals.

In reporting on the conflicts and contradictions that make up this trap, I am using testimony which comes mostly from thoughtful teachers who think wistfully about the possibility of improving their own courses. They are tired of just covering the ground, by which they mean exposing the pupil to a prescribed body of already organized ideas. They would like to get some inquiry going. They would like to see pupils study because there is something important to learn, something important to the pupils. that is.

As these teachers see it, the chief obstacle to making this shift is the way achievement is now defined by the public and measured by tests. The teachers perceive that their pupils are realistic enough to

Herbert A. Thelen is a member of the faculty at the University of Chicago, Illinois. Reported from The Elementary School Journal, LX (January 1960), 190-97. know that their job is to pass tests; this is what academic aspirations means; this is what achievement means to pupils and to the public.

Of course, some of these teachers sav, "We don't mark exclusively on tests. We take other things into account." But these "other things" are subjective and unconfidently known. At best, they merely blur the harsh outline of test results.

TWO SETS OF VALUES

And here we can point to the heart of the conflict. Teachers try to set up learning experiences based on one set of views while they measure achievement based on a different set of views. Do we have to be content with this kind of evaluation?

The answer is no, and many testmakers would be the first to agree. Their responsibility for the present state of affairs is no more and no less than the responsibility of atomic physicists for Hiroshima. The bomb was dropped because of a complex alignment of social forces. The triumph of "achievement" over education is a sign of the times rather than the intention of educational evaluators. Moreover, like atomic energy, evaluation is taking an increasingly important place in our lives.

But the proper use of evaluation will not come about through the singlehanded efforts of evaluators, teachers, or any other one group. Evaluation will contribute to education rather than to narrow goals

in achievement only after widespread effort by many groups. As far as each school is concerned, the problem involves the attitudes, expectations, and goals of the entire community.

RETURN TO GOALS

How can we return to the goal of education? First, we could try to measure the pupil's growth as a whole, unique person, with his own goals, his own way of viewing people and the world. Individuals differ in their way of life. By way of life I mean the pattern of attitudes, abilities, and habits by which an individual lives and develops his strengths. If we could determine each child's general pattern, we could follow him as a whole person and help him make choices appropriate to the effective development of his way of life. We could be concerned with how he is organizing subject matter in his subjective world and the relationship between this world and his behavior in all situations.

But such evaluations can be achieved only if we start with children. We will not succeed if we start by asking: What does chemistry teach? What does history teach? We shall have to ask: How is the pupil assimilating the discipline of chemistry? Of history? How well is he mastering the method of the chemist? Of the historian? What do his learnings in chemistry and history mean for his way life? This last question is the prop er concern of the teacher, and it is

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a very different concern from the one that now motivates schools and communities.

My second suggestion recognizes that it is the purpose of education not only to develop individual powers but also to prepare effective citizens. Our schools have the responsibility of helping children live as selfrealizing people, not in a vacuum or a hermitage but in a complex society. In short, we recognize that children are going to have to take roles in a real world. They are going to manage others; interpret the world around them; make discoveries; create social, political, and economic alternatives; ferret out facts; and persuade, promote, criticize, analyze, guide, console, and teach.

Education is at least partly an inquiry into the kinds of roles boys and girls may be fitted for. We must not seal off pathways before children's tendencies are oughly demonstrated, must always allow for unexpected changes in tendencies. But we can ask, as the Strong Vocational Interest Blanks ask in regard to occupations: What kinds of roles are children developing potential for? And we could keep records through the school years of profiles that show the child's aptitudes and readiness for certain roles.

CAN WE ESCAPE?

Can we escape from the kind of trap I have described? I have some recommendations to make.

The first thing we must do is to

free the schools from the pressures that keep them from their proper job of educating boys and girls. We must reduce the pressures, so fashionable at present, for achievement, for covering ground, for mass production of pseudo-experts.

Let the schools concentrate on doing something for our children. Let the others-college faculties and employers-worry about what they are going to do about our pupils after the schools have done all they can. In other words, let's stick to our proper job of saving what has happened to our pupils and what goals they are moving toward. Let each college decide whether the student is ready to embark on its study program. Let the industrialists decide whether they want to hire him. Let the parents decide whether they are satisfied with him. These are their decisions. not ours.

Many of us in the schools know that our marks have always been monstrous. They try to signify two things that cannot be measured together. They try to measure the pupil's standing, judged against standards we have assumed (often erroneously) the higher school or college desired.

Marks also try to measure what the child has done compared with what he might be capable of doing. The criterions for measuring the pupil's standing must be the same for all pupils. Yet the criterions for measuring capability or growth of powers must differ from one pupil to the next.

The confusion over marks is a symptom of the larger confusion over the mission of the school. Let us commit ourselves to the educational job defined earlier, and let us find appropriate means for describing the results.

My second recommendation has to do with both the means and the measurement of education. Let us confront the pupil with the events, the ideas, the attitudes, and the practices that he must cope with. Let us help him cope with them, and from time to time let us assess his growth in the ability to cope.

In teaching let us use situations that are vital and lifelike, though not necessarily a slice of natural life. The situations we provide should have the validity of significant human activity. They should release the essentially dramatic quality of purposeful human endeavor. In testing, perhaps the simplest way of stating the recommendation is to say that more complete situations should be used.

I would like to see us experiment with sound movies. The pupil views a situation on the screen, tells what he would do in the situation, and justifies his response. I would like to see us make much more use of role-playing. Certainly one of the major goals of the disciplines of history, anthropology, and psychology is to develop the individual's ability to put himself in the place of people who lived at other times and other places. In role-plaving, we can watch the

pupil as he tries to feel and understand situations from another's point of view. As we watch, we should be as interested in the child's actions and expressions as in his words. I would like to see these techniques used in our assessment of the pupil's powers as manifested in performance, not in puzzles.

I do not see any reason why we cannot use situations in the community to probe development. We have had a lot of talk about democracy. All right, let the pupil see a club or a board of directors in action. Let him come back and tell us about it. Let's note what he observes, what he responds to, what is important to him. Isn't this the sort of information we need to plan further activities and to assess educational growth?

I would like to get at the ideas to which the pupil is committed. What ideas are important to him? What causes is he nurturing? Is he developing any life goals? Any compelling purposes? Are his intellectual interests expanding?

To discover answers to these questions, we must occasionally give the pupil opportunities for free choice. In planning his work we can offer him six or eight kinds of activities from which to choose. Which does he select? Why?

I maintain that this is relevant and interpretable information and that it has the feel of life. But let's let him choose among activities, not just among phrases written on a piece of paper.

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The Married Student on the Campus

KATE HEVNER MUELLER

In College and University

HE 1950's have seen thousands of young couples trundling their groceries and their babies along the winding college paths. Eleven state universities with a total of 160,000 students had 21 percent married in 1955, and expect up to 25 percent in 1965. Any coeducational campus of 10 to 12 thousand students now boasts some special housing units with perhaps a thousand graduate and a thousand undergraduate married students, and more than a thousand children.

It was—at the beginning—high patriotism in the face of our veterans' needs that eased the universities into their married housing ventures. Before they knew it, they were knee deep in garbage pick-ups, laundromats, and babies. Whether we house them because we have them or we have them because we house them, it is at least safe to say that the pattern of student marriages is being confirmed by university building programs.

Campus marriage is a subject which can touch off any number of arguments pro and con. Surely there is much that is feasible and promising about it. But few can deny that these youthful marriages—before formal education is completed—pose several kinds of prob-

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lems: for the young people themselves, for the colleges they attend, and for society as a whole. Certainly housing may be the most simple of these.

When the building programs being undertaken by our educational institutions are completed, new problems for the campus begin to clamor for attention. The first is counseling. Any university enjoys high prestige as a marriage market and the attractive inexpensive housing can raise a simmering romance to the boiling point. But is it realistic to assume that good study habits and happy family life for two (or three or four) grow automatically out of the marriage vows? And can the university counseling centers be expanded to provide the expert help really adequate for all these students?

The married student has problems. They are personal, emotional, and financial. They include the need for prenatal and obstetrical care, cooperative nurseries, more and different recreational activities scheduled at times, places, and prices convenient for both parents and children. Without all of these, either his health or his classwork, or his personal development—or all three—will suffer.

If the college accepts, indeed encourages the marriage with its new housing units, must it not also accept all other perquisites of married life, the wife and children, the added expenses, responsibilities, and stresses? Can it afford to neglect these needs and allow the inevitable attrition and waste to take their toll of our talented youth? Or must higher education assume the responsibility for success in marriage as well as for the intellectual and cultural maturity of its students.

As we consider these problems let us not overlook the greater concerns of society itself. Our society must somehow attract to the campus not a half or a fourth but all the talented young men and women of our nation, and they must keep these youth on the campus not one or two years, but four, six, sometimes eight years. Why minimize our present emergency? A thousand times we have been told that the graduate schools are not holding their own in the present wave of student enrolments. We need scientists, teachers, and social planners. The world also needs artists, composers, poets, architects, and statesmen, executives, lawyers, publishers, critics. Higher education is much concerned with those cohorts of able and talented young men who will not exchange the

immediate satisfactory family life offered in business or industry for the three or four years of poverty in the graduate schools.

Colleges are also concerned for their wives and sweethearts, for they are well aware that the typical married woman on the campus is not a promising full-time student partner of a campus marriage. The typical married "coed" is an older woman, a faculty wife taking modern art, an erstwhile housewife pinched by high living costs and standards into preparation for earning, or an opportunist from the college hinterland, a commuting teacher, nurse, or accountant on the last lap of the required degree. Campus marriage is the most critical hazard for those able young women who have been named the best untapped source of the highly skilled manpower needed in our country today.

ALTERNATIVES

What are the alternatives to our present frustrations? Shall we hope for some major economic disaster which would dislodge our society's present enthusiasm for the early marriage? Can we reconcile our selves to fewer leaders from disciplines whose training carries them beyond the marriageable years? Do we face a generation of intellectual celibates or of professionals too early spent of intellectual vitality because of their unrelenting family and financial problems? Could we institute an intellectual lectual pay-as-you-go plan APRIL would the future earnings justify a Ph.D. with a \$10,000 mortgage attached? Would the man on the street, the ultimate taxpayer, be willing to subsidize the married life of his society's future scholars through their graduate years?

Can social engineering manipulate our social attitudes toward early marriages but delay parenthood, enabling both parents to complete their education in campus community centers much like our present residence halls? Sociologists have even speculated on the encouragement of very early marriages in our public high schools with simple manual labor for selfsupport and a college entrance age of 25 to 26 with a process of admission so highly selective as to justify the community nurseries and other facilities for the children at public expense.

Could we reverse our present age differentials in married couples (the men three or four years older) and let the parents take first thought for the education of their female children? Then this woman college graduate, equipped for substantial earning, can around for a husband three or four years younger, earn his way through college, and have their children after his salary joins hers in a family budget. She would thus enjoy a good professional income and a longer wedded life, saving herself that last five years of widowhood which is her lot under the present mores.

Is it feasible to expect that the

early-married students might live for their first two college years at home with their parents, attending a community or junior college, or university extension division, with their fathers- and mothers-in-law providing some of the baby sitting and counseling required for good family adjustment? Why is it, asks the college president, that the stay-at-home college education and the built-in parents-in-law seem so utterly appropriate for your child but never for mine?

Much more likely it is to expect that the irresistible force of the growing number of married students will eventually wear away that immovable object: finances. The universities cannot hope to attract and keep enough talented voung men and women to meet society's needs if we deny them the personal and financial help which will make their marriages successful. This fact is no longer debatable. At present the little help which is given is charged to the student through the fees that he pays, in other words, to himself, or his parents, or his wife, who must earn his way through college. Whether more help will be available, and whether it will be charged to the ultimate taxpayer through educational appropriations, or to the philanthropist in generous endowments and subsidies, these are the only debatable questions, questions to be decided perhaps at the highest administrative levels, perhaps by the simple citizen in the voting booths.

They "Never Would Be Missed!"

ROBERT M. LIGHTFOOT, JR.

In The Journal of Higher Education

"As some day it may happen that a victim must be found, I've got a little list-I've got a

little list

Of society offenders who might well be under ground And who never would be missed—who never would be missed!"

IR William Gilbert wrote it three-quarters of a century ago. I, too, as a practicing librarian "have a little list"—in fact a fairly big list—of annoying people—faculty members—who, often with the best intentions, contrive all too frequently to make life miserable for those who try to run academic libraries with some measure of efficiency.

I shall name here a few from my list "who never would be missed." It will give me an opportunity to let off steam, and—who knows?—it may even result here and there in an occasional reformation.

There are the faculty members who order books without giving the correct titles and names of authors. Once I had a request (at another school let me hasten to add before I get drummed out of Bradley) for "The Man Nobody Knows," by Lewis Carroll, which turned out to be Man the Unknown, by Alexis Carrell.

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I also must place on the list those faculty members who do not ask that books be put on reserve for them until after telling their classes that the books are on reserve. Invariably when this happens, the teacher can't understand why we let his books go out on a long-term loan to the first member of his class who requested them. And I wish to complain about faculty members who set up their own "branch libraries." Occasionally I ask a faculty member to return a book he has had far too long, and am greeted with news that he can't because he loaned it to a friend. When I ask why the friend didn't sign up for it, I am reminded that the friend is subject to our three-week-loan rule, from which the faculty is excused, and the faculty member was only doing him a favor. If I pursue the matter further (which I am usually stuffy enough to do), the suggestion may be made that I communicate with the frient (who generally seems to have gone

to Alaska or Texas or some such place by that time) and try to get it back. Being somewhat accustomed by now to intimations that I am a "square," it doesn't bother me too much to push still further, and ordinarily I either get the book eventually or collect for it from the teacher.

I certainly must add to my list the nonsigning borrowers. This category is not really made up predominately of faculty members—so far as I know. Ours is an openshelf system, and I am afraid we shall have to deal with this type of "borrowing" for a long time.

And I must list the faculty wives who want to borrow all the new magazines as soon as they arriveand then don't want to return them. Some teachers, of course, have this bad habit, too, but somehow wives are the worst offenders. I once knew a librarian in a very small college who almost lost his job when he protested because the president's wife went through the library mail before it reached the library, and helped herself to whatever appealed to her. She always sent it in eventually-well, nearly always-and seemed to believe that was all that was necessary, making it quite clear that she considered the librarian presumptuous when he politely suggested that he should receive the mail first.

I must place on my list of those "who never would be missed" those faculty members who insist on telling us how the books in their fields should be catalogued. Sometimes

an instructor gets a bit violent over the fact that all the books by the same author are not kept in one place. In some cases, this presents no problem; but what does the poor, harried librarian do when the author in question writes on a wide variety of subjects. Does he assert his prerogative, yield to pressure (thereby assuring the library of future difficulties), or resort to sweet (and time-consuming) reason and diplomacy? I have tried all three methods, and can't endorse any particular one of them.

For dealing with those faculty members-also on my list-who think the library is always wrong when it differs in its practices from the libraries of their undergraduate days, I have a method. I still flinch and brace myself when an instructor comes to me with that certain look in his eye and starts off by saving, "Now when I was at Pasquotank Normal . . ." However, I now usually counter by remarking, "But, on the other hand, when I was at Syracuse . . .," and then go on to say whatever I want to. Sometimes it works.

OTHERS ON THE LIST

I have on my list some department heads who have the responsibility for ordering books. We report to the department heads several times during the year exactly how their department accounts stand. But there are always a few who suddenly realize the night before the deadline for ordering that they still have money to spend,

whereupon they frantically order the first books that occur to them, which may or may not eventually be of any value to their departments. And there also are those department heads who complain that books were purchased in their fields without their being consulted but who do not check—before they complain—to find out whether the books were gifts or were bought by another department, or were purchased from the general fund.

Sometimes it happens this way: The same book has been considered for purchase by several departments. Perhaps Dr. Snodgrass of the blacksmithing department gives solemn consideration to purchasing a book entitled The Role of the Blacksmith in Ancient Phrygia and so does Dr. Zickafoose the archeology department. Dr. Snodgrass decides not to spend any of his meager allotment on it, but Dr. Zickafoose concludes that it is worthwhile from his point of view. So we do buy it, charging it to Dr. Z's allotment. Dr. S. looks over the list of new books, sees the one he turned down, jumps to the conclusion that it was paid forover his veto-from his small budget, reaches for his bull whip, and comes to my office with blood in his eye. I give a long explanation, Dr. S. sees the light, he apologizes, we go out for coffee, and there goes the morning. But why did he have to get so wrought up in the first

I must include on my list the selfappointed library censors. For-

tunately, most university instructors tend to be rugged individualists and to grant to others the privilege of being different kinds of individualists. There are exceptions, however. I have, on occasion, had faculty members request that we buy certain best sellers, and then tell me, "Now don't let anybody borrow this without my permission." I do keep several shelves of questionable books in my office, but I always seek to make it clear that this is to protect the books rather than the readers. Anyone can borrow any of them if he will sign for it.

On my list, also, are those timid souls who want us to avoid all controversial publications. What publications would such a policy leave us?

I have others on my list "who never would be missed." My librarian readers can add several, too, I have no doubt. Now, it may be argued that I am being unduly critical of my teaching colleagues, and that, if they are as bad as I have painted them, running an academic library must be a horrible experience. Far from it! College faculties are splendid people to work with-but, like normal people (perhaps I'd better be diplomatic and say "like other normal people"), they are not perfect. I know I can't make them perfect, but maybe if I shout their faults loudly enough, I can manage to steer them, as a class, just a little nearer to my concept of perfection.

When the School Board Says No

ERWIN L. COONS and ROBERT W. McLAIN

In NEA Journal

AVE we reached the end of the road?"

That is the query of a typical chairman of a local-association salary committee, baffled and frustrated by the school board's refusal to accept the association's salary program. Many hours of toil have been spent in collecting information, interpretating data, and devising improvements in the salary schedule. There seemed no doubt that the committee's report had given ample justification for the program.

How is such a rebuff to be met? Should failure be accepted with no further effort to reopen discussion

of salary problems?

The local association's objective at this initial stage of an impasse should be one of firm determination to keep teacher morale high. The local association should be alert to give its salary committee every encouragement; especially the association should make it clear that it is united behind the committee.

The rejected program should be considered only a temporary set-back. Securing the adoption of a salary program is rarely a "one shot" project. Consequently, progress needs to be measured over the long haul, not in terms of a single

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year. It is necessary now to reexamine any weaknesses in the approach. This is the time for the salary committee to meet and analyze reasons for the unfavorable

response.

This study should include a searching appraisal of: What the committee did that was ineffective or deleterious; what the teachers or superintendent did or didn't do that created an unfavorable climate; what evidences of opposition can be identified—the influences and pressures that seemed to guide school-board thinking and the community attitudes, beliefs, and mores which were obstacles.

When the salary committee is ready to report to the membership, tactful leadership and decisive action are important. The report should be an honest appraisal avoiding emotional displays which engender bitterness and despair. Now is the time also for committee members to provide wise lead-

ership, pointing out ways of improving communications, understandings, and public support. They should build morale by suggesting a continuing effort to reopen negotiations on another basis and possibly through a new approach.

REOPENING NEGOTIATIONS

Reopening salary negotiations is a problem for association action, and should not be made the responsibility of the salary committee alone. At a membership meeting there should be adopted a carefully worded resolution requesting further opportunity to discuss salary problems with the school board.

In effect the association is now saying to the school board, "Because you have disapproved our program, we would like to know: What is wrong with it? What further information does the school board need? What ideas would the school board like to contribute? What study methods and areas of investigation would meet with board approval?"

Expressing faith in the cooperative method is generally effective. And, without mention of the rejected program, a proposal for a joint study might be made as a means of reestablishing communication. Involvement is a key to success, for those who help develop a program are more likely to be advocates and defenders than those who act as critical observers.

The association's public-relations

committee should be asked to cooperate with the salary committee. A continuing flow of information derived from the salary study can reach the public press, radio and television, PTA, service clubs, and civic organizations. Community leaders should be contacted and asked for support.

Teachers have friends—many more than they realize. But too frequently our supporters go unheard while foes and critics hit the headlines and airwaves with their views. Given information, encouragement, and commendation, the friends of the schools, it will be found, are willing to speak out. Teachers also should be impressed with the importance of their day-to-day contacts with pupils and parents.

It must be kept in mind that an effective public-relations program cannot be developed at the snap of the fingers. An ongoing program should be in effect before negotiations start. Failure in this phase of the association's total program is often responsible for the troubles encountered by salary committees.

Most school boards are sensitive to community wishes and attitudes. When they are not, more drastic action will be necessary to reach salary goals. If the salary committee believes that no satisfaction can be gained through further discussion and study with the present school board, it should report this situation to the association.

Two solutions are possible. If the school board can be made to respond to public opinion, the weight of that force may be applied; however, great care to avoid public reaction should be exercised.

The second approach is through future elections or appointments to the school board. Getting highcaliber persons to serve on the school board, however, should be an objective whether or not an impasse exists. Obviously it is better to avoid trouble than to repair the damage it creates.

What if none of the suggestions made so far lead to any improvement? Some of the following steps

may be helpful:

1. Pinpoint the reasons for board refusal. If lack of money is the primary reason, try to suggest new sources of school revenue and offer to assist in obtaining it.

2. Get help from your state and national professional associations; request advice and on-the-spot con-

sultative service.

3. Start plans for next year's effort, making careful preparations to eliminate present weaknesses and obstacles. Long-range objectives should also be outlined.

4. Consider recommending an overhaul of the personnel policies

of the school system.

5. Recommend to the school administration and board that agreement on procedures for presenting salary programs be reached.

6. Request through appropriate channels that equalization of property assessments be undertaken.

7. Organize a campaign for a broader tax base in support of pub-

lic education with special emphasis on greater financial responsibility at state and national levels.

8. Promote professional unity

within the local association.

 Send association representatives to state, regional, and national meetings where information on the latest trends and practices in teacher-salary scheduling is disseminated.

 Have association representatives attend school-board meetings

throughout the year.

11. Arrange for teacher participation in the Chamber of Commerce, Junior Chamber of Commerce, taxpayers organizations, and service clubs.

12. Read the association's professional barometer continually, because attainment of higher teachers' salaries will depend on ability to develop the concept of the teacher as a professional.

Remember that each situation is different and demands a different approach. That is why successful techniques cannot always survive when transplanted. Whatever the problem, primary concerns must be the improvement of instruction and the enhancement of the profession.

It is well to realize that any transitory difficulty will not be remedied by hasty, disorganized, and unprofessional action by the local association. Better planning, better procedures and organization, better reports and presentations, deeper public understanding, and a more sympathetic school board are all possible of attainment.

K EEP your words soft and sweet, because you'll never know when you'll have to eat them.—From Business Briefs.

Efforts to Achieve Federal Aid to Education

HARRY ZEITLIN

In Teachers College Record

ESPITE congressional talk, there seems little reason at present for optimism about the passage of a significant or monetarily substantial federal-aid-to-education measure. The generally conservative philosophy and policy of both the Eisenhower Administration and the Democratic congressional leadership, reflecting to a considerable degree the mood of the public, provides one major explanation for the present failure to accomplish a significant aid program.

Neither continued Russian success in space technology nor our own continued lack of success in achieving either equality of educational opportunity or as high a level of individual excellence in our youth as we aspire to has been sufficient to awaken public enthusiasm for large-scale federal programs designed to facilitate major educational progress.

Perhaps it is only in a period of political liberalism, progressivism, or radicalism that we can expect to achieve a breakthrough and accomplish the broad change of policy. Is it only when there is a surge of social reform, a crisis, a drive to achieve high ideals and promise, a willingness to break with tradition and precedent that we can expect to see a major policy change on federal aid to education?

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The period of the New Deal provided one of the best opportunities for such a development. This, it would seem, was an extraordinary opportunity to accomplish a significant modification of policy, for here was a humanitarian and idealistic administration which, under the pressure of events, vastly increased the range of functioning of the central government.

It is not surprising that during these years the New Deal increased significantly the federal educational role. It initiated four major programs which were, solely or in part, educational in nature: the Civilian Conservation Corps, Works Progress Administration, Public Works Administration, and National Youth Administration. In this respect the extension of the federal educational role was remarkable in its size, diversity, and shattering of precedents. Work camps, adult education, nursery schools, and library construction and repair work, school lunches, high-school and college student-work programs, an out-of-school youth work program, and a host of other educational activities were among those which constituted the New Deal endeavor. Altogether it amounted to the most prodigious federal educational involvement up to that time and marked one of the outstanding and inspirational achievements of the New Deal.

At the same time that the New Deal was expending so much energy in educational fields a continuing effort was being made to obtain legislative passage of federal-aid-to-education measures along traditionally proposed lines, that is, aid provided by the federal government to the public schoolswith little or no restriction-to be utilized and disbursed by state and local authorities. Many educators firmly believed that the New Deal administration - apparently desirous of achieving social and economic reform-could not overlook a widely acknowledged and fundamental method of advancing toward its goal, that is, by working toward the creation of greater equality of educational opportunity through the established educational system.

THE RIGHT COMBINATION

In short, then, it seemed patent to many that the New Deal period was to be the occasion when the right combination of sociological and political factors for the achievement of a federal-aid program would coalesce. This belief was clearly evinced in the confident and nearly unanimous manner in which

educators looked ahead to accomplishing this long-sought goal. Nevertheless, their efforts to achieve Congressional passage of federal-aid programs met with almost complete frustration.

While overt opposition during this period was rather limited, many factors contributed to the failure to attain passage of a traditional of federal-aid-to-education proposals. These factors included: The unwillingness to undertake additional heavy financial obligations at a time when deficit financing was already being resorted to; the question of the value of these proposals in contrast to other programs for dealing with the more acute and pressing problem of unemployment; the possibility that these educational programs might unloose a veritable Pandora's box of potentially harmful consequences; the opposition of some "rich-state" Congressmen; wide acceptance of the fact that decrease in the birth rate would continue to reduce the child and youth population; the split in the Democratic party from 1937 on (which alone probably would have made impossible the passage of federal aid, even had Roosevelt endorsed such a proposal); belief that the educational situation was, in fact, improving as a result of the educational aid being provided by the New Deal; satisfaction with existing conditions in public schools; and the unwillingness of probably a small minority of Congressmen, Dealers, and others to appropriate large sums for any purpose without the maintenance of a greater measure of control than educators would have accepted.

But an important factor in the failure to achieve federal aid during the New Deal was President Roosevelt himself. It seems clear that Roosevelt simply did not accept the idea of federal aid as traditionally understood, the existence of a vast and diverse New Deal educational program notwithstanding. The evidence indicates that his position reflected a genuinely conservative states' rights attitude favoring the maintenance of dominant state and local control of education and the avoidance of federal involvement and control. If this was contradictory or inconsistent, it was not so acknowledged, perhaps not even seen. Some evidence-for example Roosevelt's labeling the National Education Association "the school crowd"; his use of the term "extravagances and frills" in describing some of the activities of the public schools; his casting doubt on the ability of public-school teachers as contrasted to private-school teachers-offers basis for a widely held view that Roosevelt had an antipublic school bias and, as a result, no tendency to support federal aid for these schools. In any event, his opposition must be judged a major cause of failure to achieve a significant traditional program of federal aid.

Thus it was that instead of proving to be the occasion when a constellation of factors combined to

bring considerable success to the federal-aid-to-education movement. the situation during the New Deal led to conflicting results. The traditionally sought program of aid to the public schools never came close to being realized. But a massive program of support, essentially under federal control, of little direct assistance to the public schools was initiated with striking success -logic, consistency, or doctrinaire liberalism notwithstanding. contradiction can be explained on the basis of the unique individuality, in thought and action, of President Roosevelt as he influenced and controlled New Deal policy.

While the importance of the failure of federal-aid legislation can only be speculated on, hindsight makes it appear that a critical opportunity was lost. The failure caused the many real educational achievements of the New Deal to be looked on as primarily emergency unemployment which ended as this crisis situation eased. Although there was great value in these programs as stimulants and innovations, as aids in lifting the American level of education and culture, and in helping us to approximate more nearly the goal of equality of educational opportunity, the failure to signalize these accomplishments by complementing them with a measure contributing more permanently to the precedent of federal acceptance of educational responsibility left unachieved a major breakthrough which has yet to be realized.

Improving the Curriculum and Teaching through Action Research

JANE FRANSETH

In School Life

MHAT is meant by action research? How does it differ from other kinds of research? What is its function in the curriculum and teaching?

There are no easy or definitive answers to these questions because much depends on the perception and competence of the person undertaking the research and the complexity of the hypotheses being tested; and to some extent judgments differ about the need, the feasibility, and the meaning of action research—especially in its relation to teaching and curriculum improvement. Even so, I shall propose some tentative answers.

From my point of view, action research is a systematic examination conducted by individuals or groups studying their own practices in search of sound answers to unresolved problems in their work and aimed at improving their own performance on their jobs.

Specifically, action researchsometimes called on-the-job research-includes the development of a plan to test a guess, a hunch, or a hypothesis, or to find answers to a question; systematic collection of data on what is being done; and analysis of the data to determine the extent to which a guess

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or hypothesis is correct or a curricular practice is effective. The researchers are the teachers or other educators examining the effectiveness of their own performance.

Whether they are teachers, curriculum workers, principals, supervisors, or directors of instruction, their main function is to help provide good learning experiences for pupils, and their hypotheses or theories are being tested in the classroom or in some other practical situation.

Suppose, for example, that a teacher wishes to test the theory that providing books on a wide range of reading levels and making them easily available to his pupils increases their interest as well as their reading comprehension. His research might include following steps: recording facts about the present situation in the classroom, including the reading ability and interest of each pupil; bringing to the classroom additional books on a wide range of reading levels; keeping records of what his pupils do with the additional books; and periodically checking on their comprehension. At the end of the project he would examine the records to determine whether his pupils had made progress and, if so, to what extent.

In this example of on-the-job research, the director of research is the teacher, the focus is on what he does to test his theory, and the place of operation is his classroom. The results are the teacher's increased understanding of ways of stimulating his pupils' interest and achievement in reading and the evidence, if any, of their progress.

The steps indicated are typical of on-the-job research conducted by school people examining their own practices, although they are characteristic of other kinds of research, too. Many on-the-job research projects do not require or permit the use of the complicated techniques essential in carefully controlled experimental research. Other action research projects, however, may use such techniques. The focus of action research is a systematic study on the job, but the methods need not be limited. The need, the situation, and the availability of persons with specialized research skills are among the factors that help determine what research methods will be most useful in the improvement of learning for pupils in particular situations.

There are some kinds of activity labeled research which, in my

judgment, do not qualify as research. For example, a teacher may say: "We are experimenting with the use of books on a wide range of levels of difficulty this year. We like it. We can see that our pupils are making significant gains in reading ability."

Even though research findings show that such an effort to provide for a wide range of reading levels can improve reading ability, this teacher's statement offers no evidence that gains were made.

RESULTING VALUES

To earn the title "research," the practice must, I believe, use systematic study, careful examination of the facts collected, and wellconsidered decisions on future action. The teacher who follows this procedure is likely to increase his skill in using scientific methods in class rooms; in testing scientific theories; in analyzing his own problems and finding satisfactory solutions to them; in selecting, organizing, and presenting subject matter to suit the individual needs of his pupils; and in making sound decisions based on evidence he can understand.

If teachers are to be effective they must acquire accurate and adequate information, recognize its significance, adapt it to their particular needs, and make it a part of their working equipment.

Today many effective methods are being used-both in preservice and in-service education-to help teachers acquire knowledge, particularly about human behavior and how children learn; analyze their problems; apply their knowledge to their own problem; and gain selfconfidence in making decisions. One of these ways is through action research.

Educators in general have come to recognize the function and importance of action research in improving teaching and the curriculum, as a means of bridging the gap between teacher preparation and classroom practice, between the findings of research and beneficial change in the classroom. I believe that many of them have been stimulated to undertake or support action research by the convincing evidence, now mounting, that systematic study and experimentation on the job by teachers and curriculum workers does increase their knowledge of the educative process and help them improve their practices.

School administrators, specialists in teacher preparation, and others are emphasizing that teachers should be encouraged to use the research method for a number of reasons, two of which are particularly strong.

1. Classroom teachers are in the best position to test some scientific principles and theories because they know their own and their pupils' needs and because they can weigh the practical results.

Like the rest of us, teachers are more firmly convinced by seeing for themselves whether a principle works out well in practice. Moreover, practices that get good results for one teacher are often picked up and tried by others.

2. There are indications that teachers who use scientific methods in studying their own practices are more likely than others to study the findings of scientific research in an effort to improve their work. Such study, in turn, increases their knowledge and skill in using scientific methods. As they become better informed, they can pass their knowledge on to others.

All day and every day, teachers make decisions that affect what and how children learn. We should assume that the quality of their decisions improves as they discover for themselves better ways of working and of finding sound answers to their questions about the educative process. The main function of action, or on-the-job, research in the school is to help educators improve curriculum and teaching by systematically examining and evaluating their own work in helping children learn.

ECOND-GRADE Tommy had just become aware that many people in different parts of the world use different languages. "Say," he asked, "how many different kinds of 'Englishes' are there?"—Harold F. Bennett in The Christian Science Monitor.

Are the Multiple Learnings Realized?

Children Learn as They Read

MILDRED A. DAWSON

In Elementary English

This seems to be an obvious statement. Yet the multiple learnings that grow out of reading may be only partially realized unless the teacher is made aware of all the possibilities of learning through reading.

It is important, in the first place, that teachers see reading as a form of communication. It is one of the language arts. The writer of the written or printed word is expressing ideas to his readers who have the responsibility and opportunity of receiving his ideas accurately and fully.

In a child's earliest years, all language is oral: He hears what is said to him; he talks in reply. His beginning reading experiences are designed to give meaning to the printed symbols he sees, and most teachers use his familiar speech as

a bridge into reading as he prints on board and chart what he has said. So print becomes "talk written down." As the same words appear again and again in a meaningful way, the child builds up a sight vocabulary. Thus he learns a stock of thoroughly familiar words as he reads.

But there are multiple learnings—remember? As a stock of sight words is built up, the child inevitably begins to note similarities and differences in these words and gradually acquires the ability to "figure out" new words that resemble his old friends but that look and sound a little different and mean something else entirely.

That is, as children read they tend to pick up many essential skills in recognizing new words. However, a majority of children meet snags in word analysis from time to time and they learn that they need some specific guidance if they are to read fluently and get the message of the printed page with ease and competence. What these children learn is the desire for some supplementary lessons that will teach directly the requisite skills that they cannot pick up by themselves in the process of reading independently.

To repeat the title again: "Children learn as they read." For it is

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through reading widely and abundantly that they become truly proficient. Throughout the school day and at home there should arise many opportunities for reading all types of materials: informational. recreational, teacher-made, commercially prepared, reading series, whole books. We might say that a child learns to read "swimmingly" as he reads abundantly. Here, too, there are side learnings. There is pleasure in being proficient. The child learns to enjoy reading and tends to adopt it as a permanent source of information and pleasure. Through the varied contacts that his reading affords, he acquires a wide range of interests to be met by further reading. Events and people in far-off lands and in longago times become meaningful and familiar. Thus, in the process of much reading, a child learns skills, confidence and pleasure, facts, new concepts, vocabulary, and understandings.

All this sounds pretty optimistic, doesn't it? We all know that there are many children who do not read well, who consequently do not like to read. My thesis is that most of these children could have become proficient readers who would get enjoyment out of delving into books. If all proper guidance had been given as soon as these children were beginning to bog down, they would undoubtedly have become adequately skilled and happy readers.

In the course of reading widely, the child runs onto materials that vary in quality and authenticity. The able reader learns to be a thinker. He learns to follow the author's line of reasoning, to select the major points, to note the sequence of developmental events, to evaluate the authenticity of materials and detect gaps that vitiate the conclusions which an author reaches, to abstract information and principles which the reader can use to go ahead with ideas he is developing.

And the child, if he becomes sensitive to style and quality in printed materials, tends to select the well-written, artistic book. We hope that we can and do help children to learn high standards of selection as they read; and it is possible to accomplish much if we see that really good and attractive books surround the child.

It is important, too, to consider the effect that a child's reading can have on him as a person. The boy can read of the feats of legendary and historical heroes and begin to formulate personal and social goals. Girls can savor the loftiness of purpose and conduct reflected in the stories they read and similarly be influenced toward worthy ideals and standards. Both boys and girls can read of the problems and ways of living of people of other races, religions, economic standards, and political standards and attain an understanding that makes of them intelligent, broadminded citizens of this modern world of swift developments and rapid change.

To Meet the Needs of All Students

The Dual-Progress Plan in the Elementary School

GLEN HEATHERS and MORRIS PINCUS

In The Arithmetic Teacher

T a recent meeting of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics held in New York City, an elementary-school panel was concerned with the problem of providing better instruction in mathematics to gifted students. But this panel recognized also that the need for a new basic program in elementary-school mathematics appropriate to the needs of all students—the slow, the average, and the gifted—is of equal importance.

At this point the panel became interested in the "dual-progress plan" devised by George D. Stoddard, dean of New York University's School of Education. This plan appears to be a way of remedying the major shortcomings of current mathematics instruction in the elementary school

The dual-progress plan offers a solution in that it replaces the grade-level curriculum in mathematics with a nongraded program in which all students advance along the sequence of understandings and skills at rates that are suited to their individual learning capacities. In this plan, there are no grade-level demands or grade-

level restrictions. Slow learners are permitted to progress more slowly than the pace called for in the usual grade-level curriculum. They are given sufficient time to master a topic before moving on to the next. Gifted students, freed from the barriers set up by the grade-level course of study, may now learn in a single year the understandings and skills that slower students may require two or more years to master.

For nongraded instruction, students are assigned to classes whose members are at the same general level of advancement in the subject and have about equal abilities to advance further in the subject. Students are assigned to these classes without regard to grade placement. Crossing the usual age lines occurs whenever the student's

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level of advancement in mathematics places him behind, or ahead of, other students of his age.

A brief description of the total dual-progress plan is needed here to show the general framework within which mathematics teaching is conducted. Currently, this dual-progress plan is being tested in a three-year cooperative study involving the new Experimental Teaching Center at New York University and the school systems of Long Beach, Long Island, and Ossining, Westchester County, New York. The study is financed by a grant from the Ford Foundation. All students in grades through six in the two school systems are included in the study.

GRADED AND NONGRADED

According to the plan, students advance in different curricular areas along two tracks, which is why it is called the "dual-progress plan." The usual grade system applies to language arts, social studies, and physical education. Students are grouped into gradelevel classes in language arts-social studies and receive two hours of instruction in this "core" area each day. The same classes have a period of physical education each day.

But the nongraded system applies to mathematics, science, arts and crafts, and music. Students receive 40 minutes of instruction daily in mathematics and science, and 40 minutes on alternate days in arts and crafts and in music.

In this plan, all teachers special-

ize in teaching the subjects they know best and like best to teach. "Core" teachers conduct two two-hour classes in language arts-social studies each day. Physical education specialists teach a succession of 30-minute classes each day. Except for replacements, all specialist teachers are drawn from the regular elementary-school staff.

The dual-progress plan calls for a single course of study in mathematics to guide the instruction of all students taught under the plan. While they are taught the same understandings and skills as gifted students, slower learners will advance less rapidly along the curricular sequence and will not advance as far during grade school as more gifted students. The new plan does not require the slower learner to reach any given level of advancement in mathematics during any given year, or before entering junior-high school.

Promotion does not depend on progress in mathematics, but only on progress in the language arts-social studies area. Freed of grade-level barriers under the new plan, some gifted students will progress to levels of advancement in mathematics usually taught in senior-

high school.

While the same curricular sequence is offered to both slow and rapid learners, and while both groups of students are required to master each learning task before proceeding to the next, it is obvious that there will be differences in how fully the two groups learn

each task. Gifted students will obtain a more abstract understanding of the topic, and will be more facile in applying their knowledge of the topic to other areas of mathematics. Also they will be more capable of utilizing their knowledge of mathematics in new problem situations.

In teaching mathematics to any nongraded class, the teacher is challenged to individualize his instruction to meet the needs of different members of the class. The purpose of nongraded ability grouping is to make individualization of instruction easier to accomplish. Specialist teaching of mathematics should contribute greatly to individualization. When a teacher knows his subject well and likes to teach it, he is prepared to give the expert attention to individual students that is needed if they are to realize their potentialities learning.

Some of today's commonbranches teachers are, of course, better prepared to teach mathematics than others. But, it is safe to assume that when an elementary school assigns all the teaching of mathematics to those members of its staff who know the subject best, and who wish to specialize in teaching it, the over-all quality of mathematics teaching immediately improves. However, specialist teachers selected in this way need a good deal of further preparation for the job of teaching the full range of understandings and skills that may be taught in the elementary school. A major advantage of the dual-progress plan is that it frees teachers to concentrate their in-service preparation in just one curricular area. And it encourages them to take further university courses in their chosen field.

In future, if specialist teaching of mathematics in the elementary school is adopted by school systems, schools of education may establish programs that prepare teachers specifically for this role. It is likely that such a teacher-education program would attract to elementary schools many able students, men as well as women, who now shy away because they do not wish to teach the variety of subjects required of the common-branches teacher.

How well students in the schools referred to earlier learn in each curricular area with the new opportunities provided by the dualprogress plan is being determined by New York University's Experimental Teaching Center in its research study of the plan. The research test is not slighting the emotional and social needs of students as developing individuals. The new plan will be judged successful only if it is found to provide adequately for meeting these vital personality needs at the same time it provides for the intellectual advancement of students in accordance with their learning potentialities. Also, research test will determine whether the plan's provisions for specialist teaching result in better qualified and more satisfied teachers.

New Trends in Modern Foreign Language Teaching

THEODORE MUELLER

In The Clearing House

OREIGN language teaching in the past 10 years has shifted its emphasis to the spoken language. The official "MLA Statement of Recommendations," prepared by a committee of the Modern Language Association, insists that the oral skills—speaking and understanding the spoken language—must be learned before reading and writing.

This shift in emphasis has been recognized—and will be greatly aided—by the provisions of the National Defense Education Act, passed by Congress in 1958. Part of the billion dollars available under the act is for the purchase of new equipment for education in foreign languages, for the development of better techniques, and for language institutes which will acquaint teachers with the recent developments.

The government pamphlet on Standards for Materials and Equipment for the Improvement of Instruction sums up the newer approach to foreign language teaching in the following words: "The

learning of a language per se is not so much the learning of a body of content as it is the development of a skill. It is not something that the student learns; it is something that he learns to do. It is not something one talks about; it is something one talks.

The new trends in foreign language teaching relate to changed attitudes about the nature of language and the devices for providing students with a mastery of the skills. For this purpose techniques to implement the modern concept of language are being created.

The basic principle underlying the learning of a skill is student participation. It is essential that the student docs what he must learn, rather than watch somebody else doing it. He must participate. He must practice. He must drill until he has mastered each aspect of the skill. He must talk, repeat, and answer. Every student in the class should speak for 25 minutes out of the 50-minute class period. This means that the teacher must

Theodore Mueller is Assistant Professor of Foreign Languages at the University of Florida, Gainesville. Reported from The Clearing House, XXXIV (January 1960), 271-74. speak much less, and each student must speak much more.

Desirable student participation is not achieved under traditional teaching methodology. For example, the exercises may not be interesting because they are not related to reality. The questions to the student may be too difficult. Pointing out the errors in a student's answer is another practice which inhibits participation. Of a 10-word answer, the one word which is wrong is picked out and brought to his attention, in the hope that in the future he will avoid it. The foreigner illustrates rather well how this practice discourages speaking. He may insist that he wants his errors to be corrected. But he becomes less talkative when he is confronted with them.

CORRECT RESPONSES

The proper techniques will be those which engage the student in making the correct response. The exercise must be so planned and designed that an error is almost impossible. Errorless production can be achieved, as Professor B. F. Skinner has demonstrated in his article on "Teaching Machines" (Science, October 1958). grammatical structure under study is broken up into a great number of infinitely small steps, each of which can be taken by the student, and each can be drilled through a large number of examples. The exercise begins with the simple repetition of short sentences which gradually become longer. Then the

student is asked to substitute the same structure word or verb form in a series of sentences. He then supplies two essential words in another series of sentences, and so on, until he has mastered the particular sentence pattern. Only then is he asked to answer questions. Each answer follows the same pattern in which he has just drilled. In such circumstances the student participates. He keeps on speaking as long as he succeeds.

AUDIO-VISUAL HELPS

The use of audio-visual material, such as pictures, slides, filmstrips, and films is another device to engage the student in the language activity. A slide illustrating French meal teaches more than the meaning of words. The details of the room, the table, its food, and the people, though these details may never be mentioned in the presentation, serve to create the atmosphere of the French home, in which the student becomes an unseen guest. Nothing is more natural than to repeat the sentences, or to engage in conversation about what is seen.

Audio-visual materials arouse the student's interest and capture his attention. An illustrated talk about the country and the people who live there offers the most natural opportunity to use the language, to practice with it rather than to translate it. One gesture on the part of the teacher usually makes the meaning of the sentences selfevident

The language laboratory is the best known solution to student participation. It offers the ideal opportunity to have every student talk all the time. It usually consists of a number of booths which isolate each student from his neighbor. Through earphones he hears his lesson, which originates from a master tape recorder located at the teacher's desk. The lesson consists of alternate sentences and pauses. During the pause, he hears the correct answer, which he repeats again.

The language laboratory is also the place to help the individual who has difficulty. The teacher can devote his attention to him while the rest of the class continues to

learn.

HEAR THE SOUNDS

The laboratory should make it possible for the student to hear himself when he speaks. Learning a language is closely related to the transmitting of code signals where the student attempts to transmit the model signal which he hears. It has been found that progress is seriously retarded if he does not hear the sounds which his movements emit. Even the highly trained telegraph operator may find his task upsetting when no tone patterns result. Likewise the foreign language student should hear the sounds which his speech muscles emit at the time he makes them. Such "selfmonitoring" is essential in learning a skill. Selfmonitoring is accomplished through a little amplifier in the student's position. As the student speaks into the microphone, the amplifier transmits the signal to his earphones, bringing his response to his attention instantly. He hears himself as others hear him. Selfmonitoring is not disturbing. It is a factor in our daily speech of which we are seldom aware. The corrections which we constantly make while we speak are the best indications that we listen to our own speech while speaking. If we prevent selfmonitoring by plugging our ears, our speech becomes loud and uncertain, and we feel uncomfortable.

A language laboratory need not be expensive. The laboratories which provide a tape recorder or disc player in every student position needlessly increase the cost while cutting student participation in half. In such a laboratory, the student is asked to record his responses, rewind his tape, and listen to his performance. Half of his time is spent inactively, listening rather than speaking. It is doubtful whether such passive listening will help the student as much as will continually speaking in wellplanned exercises.

The use of laboratory and audiovisual equipment characterizes and symbolizes the new trends in foreign language teaching. But machines in themselves do not reflect the new teaching philosophy. The fact that the student is listening to and talking in the foreign language from the first day of instruction best indicates the new approach. •

→ With Education in Washington ★

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

Civil Rights and Education.— During the long days and nights when southern senators held the floor around the clock "to present the facts" on civil-rights legislation, one lawmaker after another complained that the measure before them had less to do with voting and more with education.

They were right. The measure which southerners were determined to block consisted of seven sections, four of which dealt with education, two with voting rights, and one with job opportunities.

"This is legislation to invade the schoolhouses of the southern states," said Senator Russell (D., Ga.) at one point during the Senate debate.

Although the majority denied this, northern, eastern, and western senators admitted that civil rights to them meant not only the right to vote but the right to jobs and the right to education. Said Senator Humphrey (D., Minn.): "And top priority on such a list is legislation to implement the Supreme Court's school integration decision."

To see how the Supreme Court's decision figured in the bitterly contested legislation, let's look at the bill section by section, as laid before the Senate by Minority Leader Dirksen (R., Ill.):

The first section provided fine and imprisonment for any person guilty of obstructing court orders issued to assure orderly school integration.

The second section made it a federal crime for suspects to flee across state lines to avoid prosecution for bombing schools or churches.

The third section authorized the Department of Justice to inspect voting records and to preserve federal election records

The fourth section was the most controversial. Under it, Congress recognized that the Constitution, as interpreted by the U. S. Supreme Court, is the law of the land. "State and local governments and agencies which have relied on the separate-but-equal doctrine are now obligated to take steps toward the elimination of segregation in their public schools," part of the section read

To help states and localities carry out "their Constitutional obligations" of wiping out dual schools, this section authorized grants (the sums to be decided later) for nonteaching and professional services required for desegregating schools. The federal assistance was to run for two years. States were to submit plans outlining their desegregation activities, including costs, to the U. S. Commissioner of Education.

The next section (section five) actually wasn't controversial. It authorized the government to provide schools for the children of mil-

itary personnel in areas where publie schools are closed because of desegregation.

Section six guaranteed equal job opportunities under government contracts for all races.

The last section provided for court appointed U.S. voting ref-Crees

After hundreds of hours of talk (the debate on the measure began officially February 15, with roundthe-clock sessions starting February 29) there was little chance for a compromise in the Senate.

It became clear that the Senate would not endorse the Supreme Court decision against segregation. Even humanitarians such as Senators Hill and Fulbright (as The Washington Post and Times Herald called them) were firmly against this provision and aided the "continuing debate" tactics. Hence, the solution to the Senate's dilemma lay elsewhere-that is, in the House of Representatives.

Meanwhile, Back in the House.— The story in the House was shorter, less dramatic. On March 10, Representative Emanuel Celler (D., N.Y.) laid before the House a civil-rights bill which contained most of the seven provisions of the Senate measure. There was one difference—and the difference was enormous. The House bill did not seek an endorsement of the Supreme Court decision and provided no aid to school systems attempting desegregation. Hence, even southern members of the House began the debate in an atmosphere of calm and resignation. They were resigned to the "inevitable possibility" that a civil-rights bill would pass their chamber; that it would be sent to the Senate for quick approval (so the predictions ran); and then on to the White House for signature.

Should that happen, though, proponents of desegregation could still count on a limited victory. For there was expectation that federal laws would include the provision for stiff penalties against any person obstructing court orders to bring about integration.

Education Bill Plans.-Once the House of Representatives disposes of the civil-rights bill, it will tackle federal aid to education. That, at least, is the promise of Congressional leaders. Their plan is to bring to the House floor a measure on which the House Committee on Education and Labor has been working throughout most of March. This measure restricts itself school construction. It authorizes \$325 million for each of three vears. Allotments to the states are based on school-age population. One of the ideas behind this bill is that there must be a minimum of federal control. "Once the money reaches the states, it will be considered to be state money." There is to be no matching the first year. But, during the last two years of the bill's proposed life, a state will be required to give a dollar for every federal dollar.

House leaders insist that only a short-term school-construction bill has any chance of approval on their side of the Capitol. They say that the Senate-passed bill (which provides grants for both school construction and teacher salaries) has no chance with them. This, however, does not discourage Representative Metcalf (D., Mont.). He will offer in the House the Senate-passed bill as a substitute for the limited school construction bill.

"New Climate?"—The resignation of John C. Doerfer as chairman of the Federal Communications Commission pleased Washington educators. Although the new chairman, F. W. Ford, is still an unknown quantity, he has brought educators new hope that education can now acquire "a rightful share" of the airwayes and broadcasting time.

Schoolmen in Washington have been unhappy with FCC policies for some time. The National Council of Chief State School Officers is on record with these words: "The FCC has gone completely commercial. Its policies are not in the public interest."

During the past year educators have placed before the FCC resolutions and petitions seeking the following:

I. More channels for educational TV stations. Specifically, educators want an end to the so-called FCC "interim-ruling." Under this ruling, the FCC held that when there are

two commercial channels on the air the third channel that becomes available must also be commercial. This reversed earlier FCC policy, which ordinarily reserved the third channel for educational use.

2. More AM channels for educational radio. The NEA's Department of Audio-Visual Instruction (DAVI) recently pointed out that the FCC has under consideration a proposal to provide new Class II educational radio stations on AM channels heretofore held exclusively for commercial use. This proposal, said DAVI, would extend to many sparsely populated areas of the country an opportunity to develop a form of educational communication not now available to them.

3. Educators also want an FCC "opinion climate" which would encourage (or require) commercial TV and radio broadcasters to provide good viewing and listening time for educational and public-service programs; and which would control the tone and taste of commercials.

So far, the FCC has not given a favorable answer to educators on any of these requests. But the new chairman will undoubtedly help generate some of that "new climate" which educators are seeking. He has a reputation for objectivity. He is said to be deeply interested in history and in the theater arts.

Worry, Worry, Worry.-Now that convention time is over-and the resolutions and platform-writing are done with for the year—organized schoolmen have a clearer picture of what they want, what they oppose, and what needs their attention.

Take the American Association of School Administrators as a case in point. In their Washington head-quarters, AASA officials say it is now clear to many superintendents that there is an overemphasis on testing and possible misuse of tests. Organized superintendents say there is a possibility that tests may control the curriculum rather than measure the degree to which students master subject matter. This worries superintendents.

They're worried about other things, too—for instance, the matter of increased dismissals of school administrators without warning or without good cause. Some way must be found to protect the superintendent from unjust firings, the AASA believes. Its executive committee is trying to work out a protect-the-superintendent plan with the National School Boards Association.

Less personal matters are also of concern to organized superintendents. There is the question of the National Defense Education Act. Most superintendents approve of it, in the main. But they are "apprehensive" that the Act supports particular curriculum areas (science, math, guidance) while ignoring curriculum areas of equal importance.

Still another cause of concern for the AASA membership are those "regional units" of the Office of Education. During the past year the Office of Education has set up "little" federal educational agencies in New York, Chicago, Atlanta, and other cities. Superintendents are suspicious of them, believing that they represent the long arm of the U. S. government in their back yards. The AASA wants the U. S. Commissioner of Education to re-examine the wisdom of these regional setups.

Reports and letters reaching the AASA show also that there is a quickened interest among school administrators in establishing kindergartens, in widening adult-education programs, in improving in-service education of teachers. No sure-fire plans or ready financial support have been found for these worthy projects, but as one AASA spokesman said: "When the interest is there, a third of the battle is won."

Interaction Needed.—Proponents of educational TV were jolted sharply last month. The District of Columbia public schools announced, through Superintendent Carl F. Hansen, that basic subjects will no longer be taught by means of the TV camera. Reason: lack of interaction between student and teacher. "With televised classes," said Dr. Hansen, "there is no feedback. Students just sit passively and watch."

This news hardly had a chance to get around the country when the National Education Association came up with an answer. True, said the NEA, in effect. Lack of interaction in the learning processes is a major weakness in TV education. But there are techniques for getting around the difficulty.

The techniques were outlined in a report entitled Interaction in Learning: Implications for TV. This 62-page document summed up the results of a three-day seminar held in Washington in February of this year. It was an erudite session. The conferees, headed by Arthur W. Foshay, Teachers Col-Columbia, first examined what interaction is, how it takes place, and what its effects are. Psvchologists present around the table pointed out that interaction is the most essential process in learning, that without it little learning can take place. They said that interaction must occur between teacher and learner, between learner and learner, and between learner and his environment. All of these are absent in TV viewing by pupils.

What, then, are some of the ways for bringing about interaction so that TV becomes the useful teaching and learning tool it can be? Here are some examples, as given in the report:

In one TV presentation, a small studio audience of learners was given an opportunity to ask questions. These provided "quasi interaction" for members of the viewing audience. A variation of this technique is to encourage viewers to send questions by mail. The report adds; "In one school system, class-

room teachers mail in their children's questions to the television teacher. In another system, participating schools send delegates to the station to ask their school's questions on the telecast, each school awaiting its turn. Preliminary discussion at the schools to formulate good questions have been found to be a good learning experience."

In Houston, Texas, TV producers tried another technique. The TV instructor was directed to stop abruptly after outlining a concept or asking a question. Learners in the classroom were then asked to form buzz sessions and discuss the subject while a sign on the screen read "Back in 10 minutes." The deliberations of the buzz groups never got back to the TV teacher, but the learners did get some benefits from "live interaction."

How to get two-way communication has been described as a crucial issue in TV. One school system provided direct telephone lines from classrooms to the broadcast studio. In another city FM radio was utilized to answer questions raised on the telecast.

Any teaching instrument, whether it be textbook or sound film, has its strengths and its limitations, the panel concluded. This is also true of TV. What educators need to do is not bewail TV's limitations but find ways to make the best use of teaching and learning can be achieved. All that is needed is

Educational News

Changes in Superintendencies:

Tyler, Tex.: E. N. Dennard, superintendent at Newton, Mass., has been named successor to Hollis A. Moore, Sr., resigned, now regional representative for the U.S. Office of Education.

Hazelton, Pa.: Henry F. Paterson, Jr., formerly elementary supervising principal, Quincy, Mass., has succeeded Thomas L. Hinkle, retired.

Hammond, Ind.: Roland B. Miller, formerly acting superintendent, is now superintendent, succeeding the late Lee L. Caldwell.

Biloxi, Miss.: R. D. Brown, assistant superintendent of elementary education, will become superintendent on July 1.

Zanesville, Ohio: Donald F. Summers, superintendent 18 years, has announced his retirement, effective September, 1960.

Watertown, N. Y.: Harry D. Case will retire in July. He has been superintendent since 1956.

College Presidents:

Duke University, Durham, N. C .: A. Hollis Edens has announced his resignation as president.

Hunter College, New York, N. Y.: John J. Meng, dean of administration, has been named successor to George N. Shuster.

Memphis State University, Tenn.: C. C. Humphreys has been named acting president, succeeding J. M. Smith, resigned, now field representative for the Atlanta regional office of the U.S. Office of Education.

Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa.: Howard L. Rubendale will become president July 1, succeeding Gilbert Malcolm, who will become college provost and adviser to the TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS:

Central State College, Edmond, Okla.: Leonard Cox, principal at Capitol Hill High School, Oklahoma City, has been appointed associate professor of education.

Pennsylvania State Teachers College, Edinboro: Harry W. Earlley, formerly at the Pennsylvania State Teachers College, Mansfield, is now dean of instruction, succeeding Herman L. Offner, who retired to become regional representative of the U. S. Office of Education.

Southeast Missouri State College, Cape Girardeau: R. F. Todd, formerly of Mississippi, is now a member of the education faculty.

Coe College, Cedar Rapids, Ia .: Howard Hightower, formerly assistant professor of education at Butler University, is now head of the education department.

OTHER CHANGES AND APPOINTMENTS:

Frederick J. Moffitt, formerly in charge of professional publications, Silver Burdett Publishing Co., has been named special assistant to U. S. Commissioner of Education Lawrence G. Derthick.

Arthur W. Foshay, Teachers College, Columbia University, has been elected 1960-61 president of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. William Van Til, Department of Secondary Education, New York University, is president-elect of the Association.

Allen P. Britton, head of the music education department, University of Michigan, has named president of the Music Educators National Conference.

J. Paul Mather, president of the University of Massachusetts, will become president of the new American College Testing (ACT) program at Iowa City, Ia., this month.

Six-Day School Week

HEAVY snows this winter in Knoxville, Tenn., engendered as much heat as cold, Education USA reports. A barrage of phone calls from irate persons aged 6 to 60 greeted County Superintendent Mildred Doyle's announcement of Saturday school for make-up work, in order to meet state laws of 175 school days per year.

The school board supported its superintendent, and the Knoxville Journal said: "The county school system . . . has taken a step to which we give unstinted approval. . . . This step means that school facilities can be utilized six days a week when needed and points . . . to even greater adaptation of the principle."

Guidance Study

THE American Personnel and Guidance Association has announced it has received a grant of \$50,000 from the Fund for the Advancement of Education for a study of the function of guidance in American education.

The study, to be completed in a year, has as its purpose the development of guidelines for the operation of guidance programs in American schools during the next 20 years. It will also focus on the kinds of professional personnel that will be needed, including their preparation for the jobs required.

C. Gilbert Wrenn, professor of

educational psychology, University of Minnesota, will be project director

Finis in 1961

C. Scott Fletcher, president and director of the Fund for Adult Education, has announced that the Fund will spend approximately \$6 million in the next 12 to 18 months, the remainder of the final grant to the Fund by The Ford Foundation. The Foundation had appropriated \$17.3 million for the period 1957-61.

With the expenditure of this grant, the directors announced, the Fund will conclude its operations. The money will be spent to advance liberal adult education, with emphasis on education for public responsibility.

After the Fund concludes its operations in 1961, the responsibility for this area of education will be assumed by the Education Division of The Ford Foundation, it was announced.

Junior-College Centers

FIVE centers for the training of administrators for community and junior colleges are now being established throughout the country, financed by grants from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, Battle Creek, Mich.

The new centers will be located at Teachers College, Columbia University; the University of Texas; the University of California, Berkeley and Los Angeles; and Stanford University.

The Teachers College Center for Community and Junior College Administration began its work in March, and will continue through June 1964, Walter E. Sindlinger will be director.

The Center at the University of Texas will begin next September, with C. C. Colvert as director.

Secondary Needs

High-school principals need to set up stiffer reading and writing courses, to lengthen the school day, to pay closer attention to the needs of the junior-high schools, and to plug harder to get better trained teachers. This advice was given to more than 4,000 principals who attended the annual convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals in Portland, Ore., last month.

One of the highlights of the convention was a study of English language arts in the secondary schools, this year's major curriculum project of the Association. A complete report on this study is to be published later.

James E. Nancarrow, principal of Upper Darby Senior High School, Pa., was installed as president of the Association.

TV in Schools—Yes and No

PROS and cons on the value of television in classrooms have been high-lighted during the past month by several announcements.

The first came from Washington, D. C., where Superintendent Carl F. Hansen officially announced that the city's schools would stop

using telecasts. (See report in "News From Washington," this issue.)

Shortly after came the report from Keene, N. H., that a two-year closed-circuit experiment with television in the high school there would be discontinued at the end of the current academic year. The experiment showed, it was reported, that this type of instruction was successful with above average students, but it was not successful as used with the below average students.

On the other hand, in the San Francisco area approximately 1200 teachers, evaluating the year-long experiment in TV teaching, gave an overwhelming vote of confidence to classroom television as presented over ETV station KQED.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

National Library 3-9.April Week.

April 11-14, American Personnel and Guidance Association, Philadelphia, Pa.

17-21, Association for April Childhood Education International, Cleveland, Ohio.

April 19-22, National Catholic Educational Association, Chicago,

April 19-22, American Industrial Arts Association, Toronto, Canada.

April 19-23, Council for Exceptional Children, Los Angeles, Calif.

April 20-23, National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, Buffalo, N. Y.

April 23-28, American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, Miami Beach, Fla.

April 28-30, National Association for Gifted Children, Miami Beach, Fla.

The Case for Basic Education; A Program of Aims for Public Schools. Edited by James D. Koerner. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1959. Pp. xiii + 256. \$4.00.

This book, prepared by the Council for Basic Education, consists of essays by 18 men. Each attempts to define the nature and need of education in certain basic subjects and to describe what grasp of these subjects a good student should have as he emerges from 12 years of public schooling. In other words, each attempts to set down a hard core for his particular field, whether it be English composition or physics or history or biology.

The introduction to the book is by Clifton Fadiman, who sets the framework for the essays that follow by outlining the standard case for basic education.

Many educators will find fault with the ideas presented in this book. James Koerner in his foreword admits that the book is bound to be attacked on grounds of being utopian, presumptuous, and vague. Other educators will find fault with the underlying philosophy of the authors. But whether one agrees with all the ideas or not, it is a book that should be read to see if -and how much-one is in agreement with the principles of basic

The Future of Public Education. Myron Lieberman. Chicago: Úniversity of Chicago Press, 1960. Pp. ix + 294.

Here is a call to arms to the teaching profession by an astute and unequivocal critic who has taught in the public schools and

knows what is going on therein. He diagnoses the ills of education as being largely the result of professional, economic, and managerial functioning as contrasted to methodology, philosophical, or content issues which concern most critics today. Unaffected by the cliché barrier that haunts well-meaning friends of education, he prescribes an overhauling of our publiceducation structure with suggestions that will horrify some but have the merit of unconcern with orthodoxy that the profession sorely needs.

Typical of his proposals is the program he outlines for teacherorganization control of entry into the teaching profession and for collective bargaining. Space here prohibits further description of his proposals but many of them are unorthodox, stimulating, and persuasive and are impressively documented. All in all, this is extraordinary and unique book because of its candor and fresh approach to a subject that is often beaten into the ground by professional and lay critics who have pet biases to espouse. The author is director of basic research for the Educational Research Greater Cleveland and a former teacher in the public schools and various universities.

Instrumental Music Room Designs, Construction Equipment. American School Band Directors' Association. Pp. 135. \$3.50.

This publication has been prepared to call attention to many of the problems involved in planning and constructing a practical music department.

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The Exceptional Child: A Book of Readings James F. Magary, Indiana University John Eichorn, Indiana University April 1960, 576 pp., \$5.00 (probable)

Discussion, Conference, and Group Process Halbert E. Gulley, University of Illinois March 1960, 350 pp., \$4.50 (probable)

Juvenile Delinquency: Its Nature and Control Sophia M. Robison, Assistant Director, Juvenile Delin quency Evaluation Project of the City of New York March 1960, 560 pp., \$6.75 (probable)

The Adolescent: A Book of Readings, Revised Jerome M. Seidman, Montclair State College March 1960, 832 pp., \$6.50 (probable)

Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 383 Madison Ave., N. Y.

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Seymour Okum 17367 Pinehurst Street Detroit 21, Michigan departments in various parts of the country are included. Practical suggestions for sound insulation and accoustical treatment are also included. A chapter is devoted to equipment for the music rooms.

Copies of the publication are available from Seymour treasurer of the American School Band Directors' Association, 17367 Pinehurst St., Detroit 21, Michigan.

Physics in Your High School. New York: McGraw-Hill Book

Company, Inc., 1960. Pp. 136. Subtitled "A Handbook for the Improvement of Physics Courses," this booklet was prepared by the American Institute of Physics. The text was written by Thomas D. Miner, instructor of physics at Garden City, N. Y., High School, and William C. Kelly, director of education projects at the American Institute of Physics.

The booklet is one of the first attempts, the Institute reports, of a scientific society to inform the general citizenry about what is and what is not important in a school's curriculum, in teaching, and in standards. about what should be taught in high-school physics, lists of books and laboratory equipment, and ideas of what a good physics course will cost are included.

The American Institute of Physics has financed the study and publication of this booklet. Copies are available from McGraw-Hill

Universities: Commonwealth and American. Oliver C. Carmichael. New York: Harper & Brothers Publishers, 1959. Pp. xx + 390.

This book presents a composite picture of seven systems of universities around the world-Britain,

Australia, Canada, India, New Zcaland, Pakistan, Union of South Africa, and the United States. It is a comparative study, pointing out common and uncommon features, similarities and contrasts, encouraging and discouraging aspects, and bright spots and problem areas.

The author discusses the nature and aims of higher education, its organization and its financing. He devotes a chapter each to student life and to the value of women's education and then discusses the various aspects of professional education.

Dr. Carmichael believes that if Western values are to prevail we must strengthen our citadels learning, and his recommendations should be of help in this cause.

Dr. Carmichael, a former president of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, has been, since 1957, a consultant to the Ford Foundation for the Advancement of Education, which financed this study.

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED:

ELEMENTARY

The World of Wonderful Differ-Hans Guggenheim. York: Friendly House Publishers, 1960. Pp. 56. \$2.50. An imaginative blend of light verse and charming illustration on the wonder worth of difference among people.

Children . . . Their Ways and Wants. Katherine Reeves. Darien, Conn.: The Educational Publishing Corporation, 1959. Pp. 192. \$2.95.

Fives at School; Teaching the Kindergarten. Elenora Haegele Moore. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959. Pp. xviii + 333. \$4.75.

Mi Cuaderno de Espanol. (Spanish in the Grades, Book One.) Margit W. MacRae, Boston: Hough: ton Mifflin Company, 1959. Teachers Edition. Pp. 248. \$3.00.

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Psychology in Teaching and Learning

WILLIAM CLARK TROW, University of Michigan

This compact new text successfully relates the major theories of educational psychology to the daily activities of the teacher. Each chapter introduces an educational situation and the psychological theories and facts needed to understand and handle it. The situations are deliberately arranged in the order in which the teacher will probably meet them-beginning with the class as an audience, moving through the discovery of individual differences to the problems of learning and of the manipulation of group processes. Abundant lists of outside readings direct the student to the rich supply of historical, theoretical, experimental and other related sources. Well illustrated. Glossary. Student's and Instructor's Manuals. about 400 pages Spring 1960

HOUGHTON MIFFLIN COMPANY - Boston

New York Atlanta

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Dallas

Palo Alto

Program; Self-Selection in Action. Jeannette Veatch. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959. Pp. xiii + 242, \$4.50.

From Adventure to Experience through Art. Pauline Wright Kagan. San Francisco, Calif.: Howard Chandler, Publisher, 1959. Pp. 76, \$2.25.

Boy's Book of Turtles and Lizards. Percy A. Morris. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1959. Pp. vi + 229. \$4.50.

English for Meaning. Paul Mc-Kee, Annie McCowen, and M. Lucile Harrison. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1959. Grade 3, Pp. 288, \$2.44; Grade 4, Pp. 304, \$2.52; Grade 5, Pp. 336, \$2.64; Grade 6, Pp. 368, \$2.72.

SECONDARY Home Economics for Grades 10-12; Modern Languages and Latin,

Grades 8-12; Applied Chemistry for High Schools; Resource Units in World History; and General Science, Grades 7-9. Curriculum bulletins of the New York City Board of Education, \$1.25, \$1.00, \$.75. \$1.00, and \$1.00, respectively.

Soap Bubbles; Their Colours and the Forces which Mould Them. C. V. Boys. New York: Dover Publications, Inc., 1959. Pp. xv + 192. \$.95, paperback.

Books, Young People, and Reading Guidance. Geneva R. Hanna and Mariana K. McAllister. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960. Pp. xiii + 219. \$2.75.

GENERAL

The Parent-Teacher Partnership. Ernest Osborne. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959. Pp. 52. \$.60.

The Teacher and the Public School System. Percy E. Burrup. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960. Pp. xvi + 575. \$5.25.

Teaching for Better Schools. (Second Edition.) Kimball Wiles. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. Pp. x + 341. \$5.95.

Operation School Burning. Boston, Mass.: National Fire Protection Association, 1959. \$4.75.

The Related Factors in School Discipline. Ross Shaw. San Antonio, Tex.: The Naylor Company, 1959. Pp. 37. \$1.50.

Introduction to Group Dynamics. Malcolm and Hulda Knowles, New York: Association Press, 1959. Pp. 95. \$2.50.

Education for International Understanding; Examples and Suggestions for Classroom Use. Paris: Unesco, 1959. Pp. 116. \$1.50.

Child Welfare: Principles and Methods. Dorothy Zietz. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959. Pp. xii + 384. \$5.50.

Audio-Visuals

The Audio-Visual Equipment Directory. (Sixth Edition.) Fairfax, Va.: National Audio-Visual Association, Inc., 1960. Pp. 265. \$4.75.

Which Way and How Far. Two 10-minute, 16mm sound movies on directions and distances for the primary grades. Available from Audio-Visual Center, Indiana University, Bloomington, \$100 color, and \$50 b & w. each.

How Good Are Our Schools? A documentary film based on Dr. Conant's book, The American High School Today, produced by the NEA. Available on loan basis from Education Council of the Graphic Arts Industry, 5728 Connecticut Ave., N. W. Washington 15, D. C.

Voices of the American Revolution. A 45-minute record based on excerpts from original manuscripts. Available from University of Michigan Clements Library, Ann Arbor.

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Volume XXV

May 1960

Number 9

It Still Plays an Important Role

Little Red Schoolhouse

In NEA Research Bulletin

OST young people are not acquainted with one-teacher schools, but their fathers and certainly their grandfathers are not strangers to them. The alumni of one-teacher schools remember with mixed feelings the box-like wooden structure, the hand water pump, the woodshed behind the school, the two little outhouses far in the background, and the potbellied stove surrounded by rows of desks and benches.

For families living in sparsely settled plains and mountain communities the one-teacher schools were indispensable. With better roads, school buses, and school district consolidations, the number of one-teacher schools has diminished, but the important role these schools are still playing in providing education for some American children cannot be ignored. For the sake of hundreds of thousands of children still dependent on these schools, the remaining one-teacher schools must be made as good as possible.

Reported from a survey made by the NEA Research Division and published in NEA Research Bulletin, XXXVIII (February 1960), 3-10.

Recently, the NEA Research Division conducted a national study of one-teacher schools. It was learned that while these schools are being abandoned rapidly, many such schools are still in operation. Nearly 400,000 children, or 1.1 percent of all American children enrolled in public schools, went by foot, automobile, bicycle, or on horseback to nearly 24,000 oneteacher schools in 1958-59. Twenty percent of the public schools in the United States are one-teacher schools. Their teaching staffs represent 2 percent of all classroom teachers.

Concerning the buildings themselves, the study revealed that the average one-teacher school is 43 years old. More than half of the school buildings were built between 1900 and 1929. And more than one-fifth of them were constructed before 1900, some of these even before 1870. Yet most teachers considered their buildings generally satisfactory. Although about two-thirds had no inside toilet and more than half used stoves to heat the building, 97 percent of the schools had electricity.

Eighty percent of all one-teacher schools are concentrated in 12 states. These states are: Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Wisconsin, Michigan, Kentucky, and West Virginia. About 52 percent of the schools reporting were located in open country, 38.3 percent in centers of less than 150 population, and 10.1 perand over.

THE TEACHERS

The teachers of one-teacher schools were asked a number of questions about their personal and professional status. The replies can be compared with data representing all American public-school teachers reported for the year

The widely accepted notion that the one-teacher schools are staffed by young unmarried schoolma'ams with only a high-school education lacks foundation. The average teacher in a one-teacher school is 45 years old, married, and has two children. She is two years older than the average of all public-

school teachers. Only 8.3 percent of the teachers in one-room schools are men and they are—with a median age of 31.5—much younger than the women teachers.

In the United States, the 1955-56 study revealed, about two-thirds of all elementary-school teachers had a bachelor's or higher college degree; one-eighth held a master's degree. The teachers in the one-teacher schools do not meet such high academic standards. Nearly 84 percent of them have had less than four years of college preparation. Only 16 percent have had four or more years of college, and only 3.2 percent have had five or more years of college preparation.

The percentage of women teachers having certificates representing full qualifications for their positions is higher than that for men teachers—about 87 percent of the women teachers and 70 percent of the men teachers have full certification. A smaller percentage of men teachers have certification than women teachers despite the fact that men teachers on the average have longer educational preparation.

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

The one-room school teachers had an average of 11 years of teaching experience in 1959, of which three years were spent in their present school. The women teachers had an average of 11 years of teaching experience, while men teachers had only six years, a difference that would be expected in

view of the higher average age of the women teachers. It was found that the teachers with the most experience are employed in the larger communities.

A study of teacher load, made by the NEA Research Division in showed that American public-school teachers spend an average of 48 hours a week on school duties inside and outside school. The 1959 one-room school survey indicates that in the one-room schools the typical teacher spends 54 hours a week on school duties, the men spending a little less time in school than women teachers but a little more time outside school hours in school duties.

SALARIES

Yet these one-room teachers are not as well paid as other teachers. The average salary of the one-room school teacher in 1959 was \$2,954, only 61.6 percent of the U. S. average for all classroom teachers There is considerable difference among the salaries paid one-room school teachers by region. The highest average salary is in the Far West, the lowest in the Southeast. Although men teachers have fewer years of teaching experience and fewer of them hold full certification, their median salary is slightly higher than the median salary of women teachers. The median salary of men teachers was \$2,957, and that of women teachers, \$2,-

Despite these conditions, when teachers were asked whether

they would teach in a one-room school if they could start over again, 94.2 percent answered yes! When they were asked if they planned to continue teaching, 39.8 percent said they definitely planned to continue teaching, and 28.8 percent said they probably would. Only 13.7 percent said that they definitely would not continue teaching, and 17.7 percent said that they probably would not.

There are two opposing points of view regarding the value and future of the one-teacher schools. One group believes that part of the solution to the problem of rural education lies in replacing all the remaining one-teacher schools with centrally located larger graded schools. These people say that only a large school with several teachers and a large well-equipped plant can effectively and economically provide the various educational services required to meet the needs of children today.

Opposing this view are those who are convinced that there are circumstances under which it is better to keep the one-teacher school than to subject children to the fatigue and hazards of transportation to distant centers. Some people believe that the schools can provide nearly as good an educational experience for the rural child as can a large school. They say, also, that these schools help keep the function of education in the community, help maintain a community center within easy reach of every farm, and, be-

cause classes are small, are more conducive to quality education.

In the Research Division study, the teachers were asked: "Do you think it would be possible to consolidate your school with another school in the area?" About 66 percent said it was possible, 24 percent said it was not possible, and 10 percent had no opinion. The 66 percent comprised 46.6 percent who favored consolidation, 13.7 who did not favor consolidation, and 5.6 percent with no opinion.

Teachers opposed to the consolidation of the schools gave some interesting reasons for their views. Here are a few examples:

"It has been voted down twicetakes too much money." (New Hampshire)

"Patrons object-young children leave home too early on buses and return too late." (Missouri)

"Children get more individual attention in a small school." (Min-

"'Johnny' has a better chance to learn to read in his own home school." (Minnesota)

"Most of the people are going to move if the school is consolidated. The school could be repaired and electricity could be easily furnished." (New Mexico)

"Spend a little money on them, and with a good teacher they are better than crowded buses and rooms." (Kentucky)

"Many times these consolidations create overcrowded conditions, long rides on buses over rough roads, and parents live too far from school to take active part in PTA activities." (Kansas)

"All Amish-they do not want to go to school with the English." (Pennsylvania)

"The little democracies seem to be doing all right as is." (South Dakota)

"The people are backward and do not wish to lose the school." (Illinois)

"The parents wish to keep the school because it is considered one of the oldest one-room schools in the country, and is the center of community activity for this partic ular area." (West Virginia)

Vork City principal rules for teachers, posted by a New York City principal, included: Each teacher will bring a bucket of water and included: Each teacher will bring a bucket of water and scuttle of coal for the day's sessions. Men teachers may take one evening each week for courting purposes, or two evenings a week if they go to church regularly. After 10 hours in school, the teachers should spend the remaining time reading the Bible or other good books. Any teacher who smokes, uses liquor in any form, frequents pool or public ball. frequents pool or public halls, or gets shaved in a barbershop will give good reason to suspect his worth, intentions, integrity, and honesty. From Esso Manhattan.

How the Ford Fund Makes a Grant

In School Management

WHEN the Ford Foundation began to plow millions into our educational wastelands a few years ago, it was greeted with universal praise. Today, a substantial section of the educational community takes a less-than-enthusiastic view of its work.

How can you make enemies by giving away money? It's easy, when you establish firm policies as to what kind of projects you will support with grants. It's even easier when you are willing—through obstinacy or courage—to run headon into powerful groups that are hostile to theories you are backing.

Educational television is a good case in point. The Ford Foundation and the Fund for the Advancement of Education (its main educational arm) have poured millions of dollars into projects designed to encourage the use of television as a teaching tool. Professional teaching organizations have taken violent exception to what instrument they classify only as an interesting adjunct to classroom instruction.

Television isn't the only sore

spot. Many competent educators feel that the Fund's criterions for making grants are too restrictive, that its officials back only those ideas which interest them personally. Others challenge the right of a few individuals to dole out tax-free "public money." Still others mumble vaguely that "It's easier to get a million dollars than a thousand."

The Fund has its supporters, too. To them, it is just what its name implies—a fund for the advancement of education. They see it as one of the very few public or private forces willing to invest "risk capital" in pioneering projects. They point to the debilitating delay that confronts almost every new idea in education before it gains acceptance.

Because of the many myths and misapprehensions that have grown up around the name "Ford Foundation," School Management editors recently held a tape-recorded

Reported from School Management, IV (February 1960), 50-54, 110, 113, 114.

interview with Philip H. Coombs, secretary of the Fund for the Advancement of Education. Some of the questions and answers from that interview follow:

Question: Just what kind of work are you interested in financing? What does the Fund for the Advancement of Education see as its primary objective?

Coombs: We have felt from the outset that one of the greatest needs of American education was for what has been called "risk capital." That is, funds-often modest funds-to try out a new idea. We have felt all along that educational advancement requires not only larger expenditures, but a change in the way of doing business. In this sense, we are in the business of change. We are giving encouragement and support to people in education, at all levels, who have promising ideas that might make education better.

SPECIFIC AREAS

Question: What are some of the specific areas that you are interested in?

Coombs: There are three general problem areas that interest us. The first has to do with personnel of the schools-their recruitment, utilization, working conditions, opportunities for growth and advancement. This has been our most important area of concentration. A second category is program, because it is the combination of personnel and program that really constitutes the essence of the educa-

tion process. Here we are especially interested in problems of curriculum. We are more concerned with the total curriculum than any one subject, but we would define curriculum broadly enough to include all the exposure to learning that a student has. For example, we are concerned about the "lockstep" in education because it holds some back and pushes others too fast, Likewise, we are interested in such things as independent study, tape teaching, televised instruction as means of improving the quality and depth of learning. The third category is somewhat harder to define. It is the relationship of the educational system to society. Here, for example, you get into problems such as the economics of education. How do you finance education? Society has to do that. We are concerned with equality-ofopportunity in education. This is a broad social matter, involving such problems as segregation. economic barriers to higher education, and so on.

APPLICATION FORMS

Question: Suppose a district has an idea in the area defined, how should this district go about contacting the Fund? Do you have an application form that a superintendent can use for this purpose?

Coombs: We don't have any ap plication forms. We are very informal. I would say that a school district that feels it might want to turn to us for support ought first to write us a letter. It doesn't have

to be a fancy letter—it can be an initial contact. We can usually tell them, right off, whether this is the kind of thing that we might be interested in or not. If we are interested, then we can arrange for them to give us more information, or we can have one of our staff people visit them, or they can visit us.

Question: When you make a grant, who administers the money? Is it controlled by the Fund or the local district?

Coombs: We send out a grant letter to the appropriate body that is legally equipped to receive these funds on a tax-exempt basis. Usually this is the local school board. We then state the terms of the grant-derived from the applicant's own proposal-and state the duration of the grant and request a financial report at the end of the fiscal period. The district is then on its own. It is bound only by the terms of its own request. It is expected, of course, to use the funds for the purpose for which they were granted.

(Mr. Coombs went on to say that the Fund asks for progress reports, but that they keep to a flexible arrangement. They do try to keep in contact with the projects but make no systematic evaluation during the course of a project.)

STRINGS ATTACHED?

Question: Are there any strings on a grant? Are you going to be standing over their shoulders watching? Must a district permit

you to come in, with outsiders, to scrutinize what it is doing? There is a feeling that, somehow, if a district takes this money, it is going to get a form of outside control. Is there any truth in this?

Coombs: I doubt that this is a widespread fear. Much more often a school or college is anxious to get external recognition of the merit of its undertaking. We are dealing with a voluntary part of our society. After all, no one is obliged to ask the foundation for money, or to take it if they don't want to. They can send it back at any time.

This happened, on one notable occasion, when a school board in a major city got all split up over an issue that we had nothing to do with. It concerned a question of whether Unesco materials could be used in the schools. Somehow, this got fouled up with the project that we had given a few hundred thousand dollars for, and the check was returned. This was all right with us. We gave the same money to some neighboring school systems to do the same thing, and it worked out very well. There is no problem of Fund control. We have no control. The only string attached is that you do what you say you are going to do, that you use the money to run the project the way you said you would.

Question: Suppose that, in the middle of a project, the people doing it learn something that they think dictates that they head in a new direction. Suppose they need to take a 90 degree turn from what

was originally proposed. Any objections?

Coombs: If it is a 30 degree turn, they can go right ahead and do it. But if it is a sufficiently great departure from the thing they said they were going to do, they should come back to us—and this is frequently done—and tell us why they think it would be more fruitful to do it a different way. Almost invariably we agree with them.

THE SMALL GRANT

Question: It has been said that if a school district were to write to you and say it wanted \$100,000 to do something, it would get much better and more favorable consideration than a district that asked for only \$1,000 or \$1,500. Is that

Coombs: That is certainly one of the myths that is abroad. Let me say this as a general statement: We are not primarily concerned with the dollar sign that is attached to a particular proposal. On the other hand, there are not many school systems in the country that couldn't scare up \$1,000 for a really good idea in which local people believed. But the cost might be \$15,000, and for many school systems this is real money.

Question: Then you don't en-

Coombs: I think we should be wary of getting sentimental about the small grant. There are two occasions where I think a small grant by a large foundation is warranted. One is when you're probing a really

fresh area. A fellow comes along and wants a little bit of money to probe that area. If it looks like a probe that is promising, you ought to give him the money. The other occasion is where you've already spotted, on the basis of experience, a problem that needs to be attacked by maybe 25 different school systems. It won't take too much money for any one of them, but collectively it will take quite a bit. You may end up with a series of related small programs. And I think for a large foundation these are the two appropriate places for small grants.

Question: Then it would also be a myth that if one asks for a small grant of \$5,000 or \$10,000 you almost automatically get the money because the Fund is just willing to give this sum away?

Coombs: That is very much a myth. Actually, a grant request for \$5,000 or \$10,000 may actually get as many hours of attention here as a grant for \$500,000. This is one of the problems of the small grants-they frequently require as much administrative effort by us as a big grant. We don't want to use our money up in administrative costs. Incidentally, another myth is that foundations don't sup port creative individuals, only group projects and institutions. It is true that most of our grants flow administratively through institutions tions, but a large portion of the money actually goes to the support of individuals in the form of fellow ships, travel, and research grants, and the like.

What Price Double Sessions?

NATIONAL SCHOOL BOARDS ASSOCIATION

OR more than a decade, in most American communities the building of schools has not kept pace with the rapidly increasing school-age population. Only school districts with farsighted school boards, administrators, and citizens have provided enough classrooms as they have been needed. Others have waited until the rising tide of children has forced action to be taken-action that has been often too little, and practically always too late.

What usually happens to schools when a district fails to plan for rising tides of enrolment? First, more and more children are packed into classrooms and buildings never intended to carry such loads. Then all kinds of makeshift spaces are used to hold classes-stores, basements, churches, vacant houses. Finally, no more space can be found and still there are children entitled to an education. So nothing remains to be done except to Put the schools on double sessions.

Most public-school leaders believe that double-session arangements can only have detrimental effects on efforts to operate a good educational program. But sometimes taxpayers have been inclined to believe that there are real ad-Vantages in double sessions. They argue that such a plan will be more

Reported from the pamphlet What Price Double Sessions?, published by National School Boards Association, Evanston, Ill. (1959), 3 - 15.

economical, that it will make better use of the school facilities, that it will employ the teachers' time more efficiently, that the students will receive just as good an education, or maybe an even better one. What are the facts?

Here are some of them as they have been learned during an investigation made by Eugene Oliver at Northwestern University in 1957. He learned what happened at Arlington High School, Arlington Heights, Illinois, when the district there found double sessions unavoidable while awaiting the completion of additional facilities to handle a bulging enrolment.

The Arlington High School building was designed to accommodate 1,100 students. That year 1,739 students were enrolled. It may be said, with truth, that there was here one obvious advantage. It did permit schooling for all these students which would have been impossible under the normal, singlesession schedule.

The plan of scheduling adopted was a typical one. Juniors and sen-

iors attended classes from 7:25 A.M. until 1:10 P.M., while the freshmen and sophomores were in school from 11:00 A.M. until 4:45 P.M. Three lunch periods were scheduled during the "overlap" time when all students were in the building, so that one-third of the students were in the cafeteria and classroom space was available for the remaining two-thirds during this time.

LENGTH OF SCHOOL DAY

The length of the teacher's day was not changed by double sessions—it remained eight hours. The student's day, however, was reduced from seven hours to five hours and 45 minutes. Instead of a schedule of five 55-minute periods, two 40-minute periods, and a 30-minute lunch period, the students were given a schedule of two 55-minute periods, and a 40-minute periods, and a 40-minute lunch period.

Some of the obvious disadvantages were connected with the reduction of the time students spent in school. They also spent less time in school before and after class periods. This must be associated with tight bus schedules and the elimination of the "activity period" which in the normal schedule had followed the last class period. The period had been a time for make-up work, extra help for students, and teacher-student or counselor-student conferences.

The elimination of the activity period also affected student parti-

cipation in the extracurricular program at Arlington High School. This had included athletics, dramatics, speech, music, publications, student council, and all student clubs. Student participation dropped 54 percent. Some activities were dropped and others were curtailed. Generally speaking, not only the students but also teachers and parents agreed that these activities were desirable and that their reduction was an unfortunate result of double sessions.

RESULT ON GRADES

As for grades, they declined slightly during the year of double sessions. Students whose grades were above average before double sessions showed the greatest loss, while those whose grades were below average before double sessions held their own. The net effect of double sessions on Arlington High School's academic program was under the sessions was under the sessions of the sess

desirable, to say the least.

What about cost? The per capi ta pupil costs for the year of double sessions were compared with those of the preceding year. These costs were based on expenditures from the educational fund, which included instruction, teaching materials, building operation maintenance, administrative pense, classroom equipment, auxiliary services (transportation, school health program, and school lunch program). Expenditures from the building fund were not included. The per capita costs rose from \$406.52 during the year pre-

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ceding double sessions to \$437.43—a 7 percent increase.

It would be unwise to conclude, however, that the increase was the result of double sessions. Factors more likely associated with the rising cost per pupil were the rapidly increasing enrolment, the increasing wage scale for all school employes, and the increasing cost of all school supplies. In one specific area—transportation—the costs were reduced. The per capita cost has continued to rise in Arlington following the return to a single session schedule.

It thus appears that double sessions are not a means of lowering the costs of the current expenses of public schools.

Dr. Oliver's study—which also included 12 other high schools—suggests that no community should allow itself to reach the necessity for double session in its high school without strenuous efforts to secure the needed additional facilities in time. But if, as in Arlington Heights, a community must face a double-session schedule for a year or more to accommodate all its youth, Dr. Oliver suggests certain steps that might be taken to reduce the ill effects.

TO REDUCE ILL EFFECTS

First of all, he believes that as many provisions as possible should be made for individual attention to pupils. A library schedule also should be developed which would encourage maximum use. A striking reduction in the use of the li-

brary was a fact revealed by the study. Depending on the community, this might include evening hours, opening early in the morning, and placing more emphasis on the use of library resources during the class period.

Watch carefully the effect of the double-session schedule on the extracurricular activities program. If space cannot be provided in the schedule for the continuation of most of the program, survey community resources for activities which can be expanded to attract high-school students during their free time.

And finally, don't worry too much, at least during the first year of double sessions, about such matters as student behavior in or out of school, on student attitudes toward school, or on school spirit and morale. Pupils, teachers, and the community are less affected when they respond to a temporary emergency situation which is soon to be remedied. As one school administrator commented, "It wasn't as bad as we expected it to be, but we were surely happy when it was over."

Nevertheless, it must be pointed out that when double sessions are resorted to it appears that children receive less education and a poorer quality of education. They pay the highest price—a handicap at the start of life. But the community pays, too, and in the long run the nation pays because its human resources have not been developed to their fullest potential.

An Educational Ranking of the States

WALTER CROSBY EELLS

In Overview

HEN recently the National Education Association published its research report, Ranking of the States, placing the states according to 60 different measures, it stated: "No single set [of measurements] provides a complete and final answer to the question of how a state ranks, but a combination of several of them throws considerable light on this complex question." The NEA report, however, did not attempt to combine the different measures.

From this NEA report I have selected 20 factors which seemed to me to be educationally significant. No claim is made that the ranking which I have used furnishes "a complete and final answer" but rather that it summarizes in a significant way some of what the NEA report refers to as part of the "complex factors that must be considered in placing a value on a state's system of public education." Ten of the factors I have selected indicate methods and results, and 10 are financial factors indicating ability and effort.

The education factors I used include: (1) median school years completed by persons 25 years of age and older, 1950; (2) percent of the population 25 years of age and older with less than five years of schooling (ranking made accord-

Walter Crosby Eells is a veteran educator, widely known for his work in junior colleges, higher education, and educational research and statistics. Reported from Overview, 1 (March 1960), 57-59.

ing to the best record); (3) percent of the population 25 years and older with at least four years of high school, 1950; (4) percent of the population 25 years or older with four or more years of college, 1950; (5) percent of the selectiveservice registrants disqualified by the mental test, including those who failed the physical as well as the mental test, 1957 (ranking according to the best record); (6) enrolment in the public elementary and secondary schools as a percent of school-age population, 1957-58; (7) average length of school term in days, 1955-56; (8) average daily attendance as a percent of the number of pupils enrolled, 1955-56; (9) high-school graduates in 1955-56 as a percent of eighth-grade enrolment in 1951-52; and (10) per cent of elementary-school teachers with four or more years of college preparation, 1958-59.

The 10 financial factors I selected for the ranking were as follows: (1) estimated average salary of instructional staff in public

schools, 1958-59; (2) estimated increase in average instructional staff salary from 1957-58 to 1958-59; (3) percent increase in average salary of instructional staff, 1948-49 to 1958-59; (3) percent in average salary of instructional staff, 1948-49 to 1958-59; (4) estimated current expenditure per pupil in average daily attendance, 1958-59; (5) percent increase in current expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance, 1948-49 to 1958-59; (6) state aid per pupil in average daily attendance, 1957-58; (7) percent of general expenditures of state and local governments for local schools, 1957; (8) per-capita state expenditures for education, 1957; (9) personal income per child of school age (5-17), 1957; (10) personal income payments in 1957 per pupil enrolled in public elementary and

secondary schools, 1957-58. I did not try to assign different weights to the various factors, although this would be desirable if there were a way to determine satisfactorily such weights. The simple average of the ranks of the various states were computed and used to determine the ranking of the states on the composite of the measures. It is fair to assume that the validity of this average is greater than that of any of the component factors.

The highest ranking states-those in the top quarter-are located in the Far West and in a group bordering on the Great Lakes. Those of the lowest rank are found for

the most part in the South, although some of the southern states are in the second and third quarters.

Great variability is found in the rank of the states in the different measures. California must be given first place according to an average of all the 20 factors listed. Yet California actually ranks first in only a single measure, and in one it drops to 48th place. But it ranks in the first quarter in 13 of the 20 measures and has a higher average rank than any other state. Utah ranks first in two educational measures and in the first quarter in eight of the 10, but is only 35th in the group of financial measures. Utah appears to secure a high standard of public education without making an excessive financial effort.

Delaware, on the other hand, ranks in the first quarter on nine of the 10 financial factors, but is 24th in the average of educational measures. It would appear that Delaware's results are hardly commensurate with the financial investment made. It is interesting to note, however, that educational and financial factors agree very closely in the case of such states as Nevada, Ohio, Illinois, Oklahoma, Arizona, Wisconsin, Rhode Island, North Carolina, West Virginia, Arkansas, Kentucky, and Alabama.

The ranking of the states in the 20 measures of educational achievement and effort follows on the next page.

	All 20 factors		10		All 20	10 edu-	10
		factors	cial		actors	cational	finan-
			factors			factors	factors
First Quarter				Third Quarter			
California	1	2	8	Oklahoma	nira Qi	uarter	06
Delaware	2	24	1	Idaho	27	22	26
Oregon	3	3	15		28	6	44
Wyoming	4	4	14	Arizona	29	28	27
Nevada	5	8	10	Hawaii	30	21	33
Michigan	6	14	6	Nebraska	31	9	47
Alaska	7	19	4	Maine	32	20	37
Washington	8	5		Wisconsin	33	30	28
Pennsylvania	9	29	17	Montana	34	16	43
District of		43	2	Texas	35	39	18
Columbia	10	26		Vermont	36	31	36
New York	11	27	3	New	90	***	
Minnesota	12	15	5	Hampshir	e 37	32	42
Utah	13	4	11	Virginia	38	37	31
Second Quarter			35	Georgia	39		21
COMMERCE	14					45	41
New Jersey	15	11	16	Rhode Islan	ourth Q		00
Iowa	16	23	7	N Court	d 40	40	38
New Mexico	17	13	22	N. Carolina	_	42	41
Colorado	18	35	9	Louisiana	42	44	30
Ohio		10	25	S. Dakota	43	34	50
Kansas	19	18	19	S. Carolina	44	46	34
Maryland	20	7	29	N. Dakota	45	41	49
Florida	21	36	12	W. Virginia	46	43	46
Massachusetts	22	17	23	Tennessee	47	47	39
Illinois		12	32	Arkansas	48	49	45
Missouri	24	25	24	Mississinni	49	51	40
Indiana	25	38	13	Kentucky	50	50	48
	26	33	20	Alabama	51	48	51
			40	Puerto Rico	52	52	52
				- viiCO	02	04	

Other Statistics

• As many people were enrolled in educational courses last year as comprised it last year as comprised the entire U. S. population during World War I Mar and World War I. More than 100 million men, women, and children were approach to million men, women, and children were engaged in a formal quest for knowledge during the year.-From Overview.

• Add to shortages plaguing the nation: We shall need 556,642 more salesmen by 1965. And salesmen of quality are hard to get.-From Printer's Ink.

North Carolina was the first state to require polio vaccinations for school obilet cinations for school children. Beginning last fall, all sixyear-olds entering public schools had to be immunized against the disease. From The Nation's Schools.

MAY

A Free Man Lives for Himself and His Society

The Strategy of Freedom

JOHN W. GARDNER

DOUBT that many Americans recognize the extraordinary extent to which education has gained a central position in our national life. It is no longer on the edge of things; it is in the middle of the stage. It has become one of our deepest and most persistent national concerns. We are about to see the first presidential campaign in which every candidate will be expected to have a position on educational problems.

In no segment of the educational scene has this rise to prominence been more dramatic than the case of the colleges and universities. We have now available authoritative discussions of the critical problems facing higher education. But we have not yet adequately discussed the larger framework in terms of which our higher education must be meaningful. What are the overarching tasks for higher education in the years ahead in the kind of world we will live in? What should be the aims of free men and what should be the aims of higher education?

Every free man lives for himself, but he also lives for his society. His goal must be not only individual fulfillment but the enrichment and strengthening of his society. In a sense, all the things

that a free man cares about are related to one another: individual fulfillment, the strength and vitality of his society, the preservation of a system of values which makes freedom possible. Thus, whether one is talking about measures to strengthen the society, about the elimination of barriers to individual freedom, about the improvement of education, or about greater dedication to our shared purposes, one is talking about different aspects of the same thing. And I am going to call this thing the strategy of freedom.

The first ingredient in the strategy of freedom is immensely intensified emphasis on individual fulfillment in our society. We must renew our efforts to remove barriers which exist for disadvantaged individuals in our society-barriers of poverty, of prejudice, and of ignorance. We must seek to under-

John W. Gardner is President of Carnegie Corporation of New York. Reported from an address made by Mr. Gardner on December 9, 1959 at the McGraw-Hill Book Company's 50th Anniversary Celebration to present the volume embodying its study, Financing

Higher Education: 1960-70.

stand all the varied circumstances which cause individuals to level off short of their full capacities. We must strive through the educational system and through adult education to encourage lifelong learning. We must emphasize the varied kinds of excellence of which humans are capable. We must help individuals to seek these excellences and to find them. We must, above all, strengthen every aspect of our educational system.

PHILOSOPHY OF INNOVATION

The second ingredient in the strategy of freedom is a philosophy and a technique of continuous innovation, continuous adaptation. Only through the full flowering of such a philosophy and such techniques can we keep a free society vital. The potentialities for creativeness, for inventiveness, for flexibility and adaptiveness are infinitely greater in a free society than in any other kind of society. In a rapidly changing world these are precious attributes-attributes that may have much to do with our survival. But even in a free society these potentialities can be smothered under the dead weight of custom, inertia, smugness, red tape, and vested interest. All too many of us are fearful of change or are too lazy to learn new ways. And all too many of us have a stake in preventing

The third ingredient in the strategy of freedom is better comprehension of the relationship between organization and the individual, better understanding of how we may use organization constructively to achieve our purposes without at the same time destroying some of our cherished values.

It is futile to hope that the movement toward the more intricate organization of human affairs will reverse itself. Many of the things which our free society must accomplish can only be accomplished through such organization. We know that there are forms of organization which foster freedom and forms which stifle it. Our task is to ensure that the organizations -and I'm speaking of corporations, labor unions, governmental bureaucracies, any and all of the organizations which are essential to our purposes-will take forms that preserve individual freedom.

REGARD FOR EXCELLENCE

The fourth ingredient in the strategy of freedom is a regard for excellence. We need not here explore the innumerable invitations to mediocrity which exist in our kind of society. Suffice it to say that they do exist and that their very existence requires powerful counterpressures. Those of us who are most deeply devoted to a democratic society must be precisely the ones who insist on excellence, who insist that free men are cap able of the highest standards of performance, who insist that a free society can be a great society in the richest sense of that phrase. The idea for which this nation stands will not survive if the highest goal

that free men can set themselves is an amiable mediocrity.

And the final ingredient in the strategy of freedom is dedication. No great thing is accomplished without devotion. The preservation of a free society, the enrichment of the system of values on which freedom depends, the building of a great civilization-these things cannot be achieved by listless men. We shall need all of the devotion, all of the commitment, all of the moral purpose that lies in us.

ROLE OF THE COLLEGES

And now let me return to the colleges and universities. They have a major role-I am tempted to say the major role-in fostering the strategy of freedom. They are powerfully committed to a philosophy of individual fulfillment. They understand the dynamic power of knowledge to induce change, and understand how and why we must adapt ourselves to change. There is no segment of the population that is more deeply committed to keeping the individual free in a world of organization, or better able to develop the technical knowledge made necessary by the complexity of modern organization. Nor is there any segment of the population more deeply committed to the idea of excellence. And finally, college and university people have exhibited in their own lives a higher quality of dedication than is apparent in many parts of the society.

No one knows better than I do that many of our colleges and universities have fallen short of these high goals. Many are by no means unconfused in their recognition of these objectives. But I should like to think that the universities will lead the way for all of us to a clearer comprehension of the tasks which lie before us. And I like to think that they will then become the engines of progress helping to move us toward these important

The universities are well equipped to see our national aims in historical perspective. I have said that we must have concern both for the individual and for society. We must have another kind of double vision. We must understand the problems which our society faces both with respect to its monetary needs and its long-term objectives, its external crises, and its intrinsic goals. The international tensions of the moment are a grim reality and only fools will ignore them. But the aims of Americans have deeper roots. In the eighteenth century the founders of this nation set out to prove to the world that free men could create a great civilization. This is the goal we must keep before us. We may never achieve it if we fail to cope with the threats of the moment. But its validity does not depend on such threats. This is a pact we made with ourselves.

That is something the universities will remember. It is something none of us should ever forget.

What Psychology Can We Feel Sure About?

GOODWIN WATSON

In Teachers College Record

CDUCATORS who wish to apply psychology in their professional work have long been troubled by controversies among psychologists themselves. Behaviorism arose to challenge the introspective method; Thorndike's connectionism controverted by Gestalt concepts; psychoanalysts talked an almost completely different language. It was natural for teachers to say, "Let's wait until the psychologists themselves straighten out their various systems!" It looked for a while as if one could support almost any educational practice by choosing which psychologist to

A workshop of educators recently asked me to formulate for them some statements of what we really know today about children and learning. We know that gradually a body of pretty firm facts has been accumulating. To my own surprise I was able to prepare a list of 50 propositions with which few knowledgeable psychologists of any "school" would disagree. From these 50 propositions, a selection which should be useful to teachers

in their work with children are given below.

Learning Process

I. Behaviors which are rewarded (reinforced) are more likely to recur.

 Sheer repetition without indications of improvement or any kind of reinforcement is a poor way to

attempt to learn.

3. Threat and punishment have variable and uncertain effects on learning; they may make the punished response more likely or less likely to recur; they may set up avoidance tendencies which prevent further learning.

4. Reward (reinforcement), to be most effective in learning, must follow almost immediately after the desired behavior and be clearly connected with that behavior in the

mind of the learner.

5. The type of reward (reinforcement) which has the greatest transfer value to other life-situations is the kind one gives one-self—the sense of satisfaction in achieving purposes.

6. Opportunity for fresh, novel,

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stimulating experience is a kind of reward which is quite effective in conditioning and learning.

7. The experience of learning by sudden insight into a previously confused or puzzling situation arises when: (a) there has been sufficient background and preparation; (b) attention is given to the relationships operative in the whole situation; (c) the perceptual structure "frees" the key elements to be shifted into new patterns; (d) the task is meaningful and within the range of ability of the subject.

8. Learners progress in any area of learning only as far as they need to in order to achieve their purposes. Often they do only well enough to "get by"; with increased

motivation they improve.

9. Forgetting proceeds rapidly at first-then more and more slowly; recall shortly after learning reduces the amount forgotten.

Teaching Method

1. Children are more apt to throw themselves wholeheartedly into any project if they themselves have participated in the selection and planning of the enterprise.

2. Reaction to excessive direction by the teacher may be: (a) apathetic conformity, (b) defiance, (c) scape-goating, (d)

from the whole affair.

3. Learning from reading is facilitated more by time spent recalling what has been read than by rereading.

4. Pupils think when they encounter an obstacle, difficulty, puzzle, or challenge in a course of ac-1960

tion which interests them. The process of thinking involves designing and testing plausible solutions for the problem as understood by the thinker.

5. The best way to help pupils form a general concept is to present the concept in numerous and varied specific situations, contrasting experiences with and without the desired concept, then to encourage precise formulations of the general idea and its applications in situations different from those in which the concept was learned.

Level of Challenge

1. The most effective effort is put forth by children when they attempt tasks which fall in the "range of challenge"-not too easy and not too hard-where success seems quite possible but not certain.

2. According to some studies, many pupils experience so much criticism, failure, and discouragement in school that their selfconfidence, level of aspiration, and sense of worth are damaged.

Subject Matter

1. No school subjects are marksuperior to others powers." "strengthening mental General improvement as a result of study of any subject depends on instruction designed to build up generalizations about principles, concept formulation, and improvements of techniques of study, thinking, and communication.

2. What is learned is most likely to be available for use if it is learned in a situation much like

that in which it is to be used and immediately preceding the time when it is needed.

Individual Differences

- I. No two children make the same response to any school situation. Differences of heredity, physical maturity, intelligence, motor skills, health, experiences with parents, siblings, playmates; consequent attitudes, motives, drives, tastes, fears-all these and more enter into production of each child's unique reaction. Children vary in their minds and personalities as much as in their appear-
- 2. Pupils vary not only in their present performance but in their rate of growth and the "ceiling" which represents their potential level of achievement. Some "late bloomers" may eventually surpass pupils who seem far ahead of them

3. Gains in intelligence scores by children are positively related to aggressiveness, competitiveness, initiative, and strength of felt need to achieve.

4. Pupils grouped by ability on any one kind of test (age, size, IQ, reading, arithmetic, science, physical fitness, etc.) will vary over a range of several grades in other abilities and traits.

Attitudes and Learning Children

tend groups, reading matter, TV shows, and other influences which agree with their own opinions; they break off contact with contradictory views.

2. Children remember new information which confirms their previous attitudes better than they remember new information which runs counter to previous attitudes.

OTHER PROPOSITIONS

Now a few facts about "group relations": Pupils learn much from one another; those who have been together for years learn new material more easily from one of their own group than they do from strangers. Children learn that peer consensus is an important criterion; they are uncomfortable when they disagree with their peers, and especially when they find themselves in a minority of one against all the others. Leadership qualities vary with the demands of the particular situation. A good leader for a football team may or may not be a good leader for a discussion group, a research project, or an overnight hike; leadership is not a general trait.

As to "social stratification": Children are likely to choose most of their "best friends" from homes of the same socioeconomic class as their own. Children who are looked down on (or looked up to) because of their family, school marks, social class, race, nationality, religion, or sex tend to adopt and to internalize this evaluation of themselves. Children who differ in race, nationality, religion, or social class background, but who play together on a footing of equal status and acceptance usually come to like one another.

Highlights from a Survey

Trends in Teaching High-School Science

LEO E. BUEHRING

In The Nation's Schools

N a recent study of practices and trends in the teaching of the sciences in American senior-high schools, The Nation's Schools asked questions of schools located in 57 districts and 38 states. The questions asked ranged all the way from those concerned chiefly with curriculum to such practical matters as budgets for the purchase of supplies and even the methods used for applying for equipment items.

Questions also were asked concerning the views of science department heads and others about desirable changes which could or should be made. Again these ranged from curriculum to equipment, and views were expressed by those queried on such diverse matters as the proper length of the science class and laboratory periods, on the value of science fairs, on the use of noncertified assistants, about the differences made in their own schools in science courses offered to college preparatory students and others, on mathematics requirements, and a score of other pertinent topics.

In this shortened report it will be necessary to depart from the question and answer format and to omit views on a number of matters which the full survey included. Some significant trends can, however, be pointed out and these should be of interest to all those who are concerned with the place of science in senior-high schools of today.

Changes in the science curriculum that had taken place in the last five years was one of the first questions asked in the survey. It was learned that such changes are mostly in subject emphasis rather than in the development of new courses. The theoretical approach to subject matter is being stressed, as opposed to applied science exercises. Better guidance facilities are being made available, and there is better grouping of the less able as well as the talented.

In the biology curriculum attention is given to biochemistry, radiation biology, and microbiology. Students are introduced to the use and limitations of wonder drugs

Leo E. Buehring, who compiled the survey, is Feature Editor of The Nation's Schools. Reported from The Nation's Schools LXV (February 1960), 77-86, 88.

and some background is developed in blood typing and genetics. Instruction with reference to atomic fallout is given.

Chemistry studies are more closely related to the human body and its processes, including a study of cell structure. An effort is being made to blend basic understanding of principles with applications. In physics there is a deeper probing into electronics and an emphasis on theory and Newton's law of motion.

A question which asked what science topics had been deleted, minimized, or reorganized in the last five years brought out answers that were significant. Respondents indicated that today there is less emphasis in high schools on historical science and on such practical items as how to make soap or how to build a radio. General science courses of the survey type are being offered less frequently. In the freshman year the beginning course is often biology. In the upper grades there is increasing emphasis on the physical sciences.

In biology, rote learning has been replaced by the study of relationships between major principles. In physics, certain phases of mechanics, heat, metals, weather, and conservation have been deleted on the assumption that these treated adequately in junior-high school. Such simple applications of science as the steam engine have been relegated from physics classes to lower grade general science.

Other subjects eliminated are:

the mechanics of automobiles and television sets, and purely descriptive phases of chemistry and biology. Formal notebooks and workbooks are fewer. In areas in which practical applications of textiles and agriculture formerly were stressed, these are being minimized, as also are health topics, botany, zoology, learning classifications, and organizational schemes.

REORGANIZATION TREND

It was learned also that there is a trend toward reorganization, fusion of subjects, and integration. Commonly science and mathematics have become more closely related, particularly in the advanced courses. Experiments are being conducted in teaching groups, usually with the aid of educational television and other audio-visual materials. The common trend in sequence appears to be biology, chemistry, and physics, often beginning with the ninth grade and leaving the twelfth grade for advanced work. A step in the direction of giving all science courses a laboratory approach is evident.

Most schools have provided additional learning opportunities for high-school students with special talents.

Almost every school system sampled reports having science clubs in operation, ranging from biology and chemistry to radio and photog raphy. Special field trips are a regular policy ular part of the science program of most schools. Some systems provide additional opportunity for the talented in science during the summer months. There are, however, as yet few evening classes or Saturday classes except as they are offered by local colleges or universities.

Respondents were asked also to comment on special classes or a modified curriculum program to facilitate the teaching of science subjects to slow learners. Most schools appear to be making an effort to provide these students with at least a sufficient science background for daily living. Many report that various forms of grouping provide a solution to this problem. There also appears to be a belief that students of poor ability in science and slow learners in general usually do not elect science courses beyond the minimum requirements.

SCIENCE FAIRS

With negligible exceptions, the reporting districts state that they conduct science fairs in at least some of their schools, or participate in regional and other science fair projects. In some instances, the community fairs serve as screening devices for regional science exhibitions.

Just about every respondent has something favorable to say regarding science fairs, although most are aware of the difficulties and shortcomings inherent in this type of program. Among the advantages listed are the following:

Science fairs are incentive de-

vices, creating interest in science courses for both student and public. They can provide excellent motivation for out-of-class study and more intensive and extensive participation in creative work. Younger students see the exhibits and become interested in enrolling in science courses.

Gifted students are stimulated by science fairs to apply scientific principles and to use scientific methods, as well as to utilize the resources of the community. Competition with others academically is thought to give stature to academic ability. Opportunity for student experimentation is provided along with a chance to explore special interests, and to express individual ideas and differences. For those qualified, an opportunity is provided to do independent research and original work and to make contact with professionals in the field. For the school an opportunity is provided to tell the story of the school's K-12 science program and to create a broader interest on the part of citizens.

In many cases the same persons who stated the advantages of science fairs also pointed out the disadvantages. Some of these disadvantages mentioned are: Dishonesty can be encouraged; too many projects are done by parents or with too much help by other persons, with the student receiving credit for work he did not do. The number of entrants has become too large and projects are poor and releptitious; copy projects defeat the

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objectives of a science fair. Some believe that too much emphasis is placed on the mechanics of preparing an exhibit rather than on true scientific value. The display is likely to be artistic rather than scientific and lean toward kits rather than originality and learning experiences. Not only that, but exhibits cost money and students from low-income groups cannot compete fairly with students from higher-income brackets. Too often fair participation is a novelty that soon wears off; interest stimulated is not sustained until the next fair. Spur-of-the moment activities may follow cookbook type instruction, which has little scientific value. At the other extreme is the student who attempts a project that lies outside and above his scientific back-

Perhaps the most frequently mentioned danger, even by those who plan to continue their science fairs, is that the students spend too much time on "projects" and too little time on homework. Also, a tremendous amount of time is added to the teachers' load after school hours, with the event becoming the public relations focal point for the instructional program in general, thus losing its true purpose. Because of the time required, other basic activities may suffer, and the

fair may interfere with regular class work.

In connection with the time needed by the teacher in earrying out these fair projects and his class work, the survey revealed the fact that as yet science teachers have little noncertified help, such as student teachers, laboratory assistants, and clerical aid. Results of the sampling show that, by and large, science instructors run their own show without any assistance.

Districts were queried about the methods they use to evaluate their science instruction. Replies indicate the following procedures: Teachermade tests appear to be the backbone of science instruction evaluation, with virtually every district in the sampling reporting this method. Following closely are standardized tests, including Ohio's every-pupil test in science, the Iowa test of educational development, and the New York State science survey test. Almost two-thirds of the districts sampled use work products as criterions, and about one-third make use of anecdotal records. Other miscellaneous methods are: following up graduates, departmental tests, practical tests, teacher-group sessions, and permanent student records including college reports and laboratory as signments.

Science—Examination Style

- Sea water has the formula CH₂O.—From Science Re-
- When a volcano spits fire it is called saliva.—From San Francisco Teachers Journal

An Overbauling Is Needed

The Crisis

III

Language Training

JACOB ORNSTEIN

In The American Scholar

As the United States has come to take an increasingly important role in international affairs, the inability of its citizens to communicate in anything but English has been a handicap in both war and peace.

In our present position of Free World leadership, we continue to find a lack of languages to be a constant stumbling block in our efforts to communicate with other nations and to understand them. Now when so much emphasis is being placed on "person-to-person" diplomacy in the idealogical struggle between East and West, our unilingualism contrasts sharply with the linguistic versatility of other peoples. The Soviets, for example, have made it perfectly clear that they consider language training to be no less important than science

and technology. It is little wonder that their overseas personnel have amazed even such polyglots as the Swiss and the Danes by their ability to handle languages.

When the state of Libya was established a few years ago, the Russians immediately dispatched a mission of 15 Arabic-speaking diplomats to that Middle Eastern land. The United States had only one Arabic linguist.

The Soviets insist that their foreign representatives acquire the language of the country for which they are bound, as well as one or two useful secondary tongues, before they ever set foot on its soil. By painful contrast, perhaps one in 30 of America's overseas representatives can speak fluently the languages of the countries to which they are sent. How well can the message of democracy be carried by persons unable to communicate in anything but English?

It is not only in diplomatic affairs that our traditional linguistic ignorance is costly. The task of keeping abreast of scientific, technological, and intellectual developments abroad becomes more staggering with the general increase in _____

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literacy throughout the world. It is not surprising that many otherwise well-informed Americans were profoundly shocked, in the wake of Sputnik I, to find that of the 1,200 or so Soviet scientific publications that we receive, less than 50 were until 1957 regularly translated and analyzed. The American scientist who can read Russian is almost as rare as the whooping crane. In a survey I made, just prior to 1957, it was found that only 165 of our 1,800 colleges even taught Russian-and this to a mere 5,000 students. This number, of course, is insignificant when compared with the estimated 10,000,000 Russians of all ages who today are studying

How did it happen that Americans have remained unilingual—that not only the average citizen but also our intellectual elite came to adopt the hapless philosophy of "Let Them Learn English"? There are reasons of course. Geography and certain features of our historical and cultural development have played their part. It is currently fashionable to hold the educational system responsible for all that ails us as a nation. But the entire blame cannot be placed at the doorstep of American schools.

It is largely through the schools, however, that the situation must be corrected. Encouraging developments have taken place and more are projected. But today we still are failing to meet all but a fraction of our language needs.

This generally dismal picture is

relieved by a few bright spots here and there. The S5th Congress passed the National Defense Education Act, which authorizes a total of \$887,000,000 to be utilized for a four-year program of development of science, mathematics, and language training. Moreover, a number of conferences have been called recently at which national leaders in many fields have tried to come to grips with our nation's language deficiencies.

OUR PRESENT NEEDS

In final analysis, however, the solution to our foreign-language problem does not lie in the calling of high-sounding conferences or the appropriation of large sums by Congress for "crash programs," no matter how meritorious. What is needed is a complete overhauling of our antiquated language teaching system-or lack of system-and its replacement by facilities suited to twentieth century needs. This means a program in which both the quality and quantity of language instruction would be vastly improved.

It would require the introduction of a modern language in the elementary school and its continuation for from six to ten years—through high school and part of college. Every youngster of average intelligence would thus be assured of a reading, writing, and speaking knowledge of at least one foreign language by the time he is graduated from high school. College programs would then be able

to provide advanced training and specialized study. There is nothing visionary about such an objective when one considers that many smaller and less prosperous nations succeed in equipping their young people with not one but several languages.

Old-fashioned teaching methods that have made language study anathema to generations of young Americans need to be revamped by stressing the actual use of the foreign tongue and making fuller use of modern audio-visual devices. The range of languages taught in both high schools and colleges must be expanded to include such major world tongues as Russian, Chinese, Arabic, Hindi, and Indonesian.

Language careers need to be made attractive to both teachers and students, through scholarships, travel fellowships, and the general improvement of monetary and fringe benefits. Moreover, there is a need for the creation of a national coordinating council, composed of government, academic, tourist, and business leaders, to give sane direction to our national linguistic effort and to provide a clearinghouse for language problems.

Finally, it is necessary to secure at the grass roots a better under-

standing of the language problem in its relationship to our international communication needs. A beginning has already been made in mobilizing public sentiment. The United States National Commission for Unesco, cooperating with the Modern Language Association, has sponsored a series of "citizen consultations" in hundreds of American communities. Armed with the facts and figures presented at these meetings, parents, educators, and civic leaders have spearheaded drives to improve language facilities at the local level.

Happily there is today a growing realization that our antediluvian linguistics have no place in the atomic age. Now, while American education is being subjected to a searching scrutiny, is indeed an ideal time for us to mend our linguistic fences. It is even possible that many of the "life adjustment" courses that figure so prominently in school curriculums may be replaced by up-to-date offerings that acquaint young Americans not only with foreign tongues but also with the backgrounds of the peoples who speak them. If this materializes, there is a real likelihood that Americans may lose the distinction of being the world's most linguistically limited citizens.

his teen-aged son to an old rancher friend, inquired about his son's progress. "Well," said the rancher, "he's a good worker, and already he speaks cow language. But he ain't learned yet to think like a cow."—John Harold in Midland Schools.

Adapting Instruction to Learning Needs in the Intermediate Grades

DONALD D. DURRELL

In Journal of Education

the spring of 1958, the United States Office of Education provided a research contract to Boston University for a study of differentiated instruction in selfcontained classrooms. The town of Dedham, Massachusetts, was selected for the study. Here there were 47 intermediate-grade classrooms in eight elementary schools. The plan called for the measurement of achievements of pupils in these rooms in June 1958, to be followed by a program of differentiated instruction during 1958-59, with an evaluation of that program through measures in June

One of the first problems was the selection of services for emphasis in the program. Since these schools followed a schedule of separate school subjects, as do most elementary schools, it seemed desirable to center the program on the objectives of these subjects. However, the list of objectives in each subject seems limited only by the imagination of the person discussing the subject; individual differences also appear in infinite variety. Some selection was necessary for an orderly approach to the services-to-pupils program and for

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a systematic evaluation of out-

A practical solution appeared in the selection of the following services to students in the regular subjects of the elementary-school curriculum: adapting instruction to various levels of ability; providing for different progress rates in learning; giving special help at points of weakness in learning development; encouraging individual and group selfdirection and initiative; and enriching learning to make it significant and useful.

These were the services which served throughout the study as guides in preparation of teaching materials and in planning tech-

niques of instruction.

In the development of the Dedham program those making the study found that team learning aided the differentiation and enrichment of instruction in many ways. Children prefer to work in pairs and small groups in contrast to

MAD

whole-class study or to working alone. This general knowledge had already been confirmed by a number of unpublished studies at Boston University and provided the authority needed for a policy to be used at Dedham. Therefore, whenever team learning promised to be equally or more effective than the practice it replaced, it was utilized. The following are some of the types of activities in which team learning was used:

TEAM-LEARNING ACTIVITIES

1. Team progress techniques in skills instruction. Knowledge of progress is always an effective motivation in skills learning. In the current study, teams of two or three pupils were permitted to progress in arithmetic and spelling as rapidly as they could demonstrate mastery. Team progress was also utilized in skills in other subjects in which suitable materials were available; applied phonics was taught through paired practice in analysis and classification of new words. Systematic review of socialstudies concepts was provided in similar manner.

2. Three- to five-man team discussions following whole-class presentation. Discussion teams of three to five pupils, with one acting as a recorder, generally replaced wholeclass discussion. Group conclusions Were shared by oral reading of the group summary, with other groups adding information from their lists. Grouping in team discussions was heterogeneous; children of different

levels of ability appear to make effective contributions to discussion when their backgrounds of information are adequate.

3. Team use of study guides to improve learning effectiveness. Questions before or during study aid in the intake of ideas; questions after reading can only measure the harvest. Study guides for use with teams of two or three pupils were commonly used in read-

ing, history, and geography,

4. Sections of the class. When many pupils appeared to have similar instructional needs in subject, they were grouped gether for special help by teacher. Controlled group progress, adjusting the pace of learning to the rate of mastery, appeared to serve slow learners well in some skills areas. New processes were illustrated and explained by the teacher, teams were then permitted to work through a series of lessons, then new units were introduced.

5. Team or individual specialities in content subjects. Depth and breadth in literature, history, geography, and science were provided by curriculum-related special reports. Calendars were prepared which aided advance assignments of special reports and displays on topics which came later in the courses of study in these subjects.

In this study use was also made of both individual and whole-class instruction for many classroom activities. Certain objectives seem to require the pupils to work alone; others appear to be well served

through whole-class presentation. The following will serve to illustrate:

- 1. Individual learning activities. These included independent reading and study for special reports; writing of papers and essays; taking tests for evaluation and analysis; certain types of skills practice; and keeping records of learning achievements and needs.
 - 2. Whole-class enrichment acticities. Some of the whole-class activities in which listening or viewing were predominant were the
 following: demonstrations, experiments, television or radio programs,
 motion pictures, slides, recordings,
 exhibits, displays, pupil reports,
 teacher explanation or direction.
 Activities involving group or wholeclass participation were: impromptu dramatization, play reading, choral reading, singing, preparation of
 displays, class projects, games and
 contests.

In a three-day workshop prior to the opening of school those conducting the study in Dedham presented the methods of differentiated instruction to be used. Since team progress methods in arithmetic and spelling were the easiest to introduce and since experience had shown that they were most acceptable to teachers and pupils, the program was started immediately in these subjects. Guide sheets, record forms, and "ground rules" were worked out and exchanged among teachers. After these programs in spelling and arithmetic were running smoothly,

differentiated instructional techniques in other subjects were developed and introduced. The research fellows taking part in the study were constantly available for demonstrations, consultation, and assistance in planning.

In this study, 35 of the teachers taught in both the experimental and control years. Twelve were in grade 4, nine in grade 5, and fourteen in grade 6. In these classrooms during the experimental year there were 803 pupils, distributed as follows: 280 in grade 4, 187 in grade 5, 336 in grade 6. The average intelligence quotient of this population was 107; the median class size was 25.

RESULTS OF PROGRAM

This program of differentiated instruction in Dedham intermediate grades produced marked improvement in many areas. There were also disappointments and unexpected findings. At the outset, the research team expected that all grades would show significant improvement in average achievement in all subjects. Rapid and slow learners were expected to show more improvement than average achievers, since it was assumed that uniform instruction fitted the latter group better. It seemed that team progress methods in arithmetic and spelling would result in marked improvement in those subjects. Less was expected from reading and language arts, for two reasons: first, it was difficult to adapt current instructional materials

serve the multiplicity of skills in those subjects; second, there is much out-of-school learning in these areas, especially among bright children. It was hoped, but not confidently expected, that history, geography, science, and literature would respond well to the program of specialties, study guides, team discussion, and enrichment.

The findings show how these expectations were met. Analysis of the data show that average achievement improved significantly in grades 5 and 6, but the results were disappointing in grade 4. Rapid learners benefited by the program in grades 5 and 6, but did not respond in grade 4; achievements of slow learners improved in all grades; the middle group of children made significant improvements in grades 5 and 6, but showed slight losses in grade 4. Spelling improved significantly in all grades; arithmetic improved markedly in grades 5 and 6, but again grade 4 showed no gain. Reading improved significantly only in grade 6, as did language arts. There was no change in achievement in history, but geography and literature improved significantly; science achievement also was raised. Boys improved more than did girls in all subjects in grades 4 and 5, but grade 6 girls improved more than boys.

There were no significant changes in social-personal measure, except in grade 5 where interest in school subjects improved. Parent satisfaction with school service remained essentially the same as in the previous year.

Long before the experimental year was over, it was evident that few teachers would willingly depart from the team learning program. On the basis of the acceptance of the program by the teachers and the results of the achievement test, the program in team learning was unanimously endorsed by the school committee.

Improvements in the program now are being pursued, especially in those subjects in which teachers rated the service to pupils as only "good" or "fair." New reference materials related to pupil specialties are being provided. Intensive remedial materials are being purchased and developed for slow learners in skills areas. Greater use of teacher resources is being utilized through a new program on Wednesdays in which teachers select a special field in science, art, music, literature, or physical education, and teach these to several classrooms. This is supplementary to the regular services in these fields. Any visitor in Dedham will find the team learning program well established.

HE third-grade girls were unhappy about the special education group. "Teacher," they said, "the 'educated' children won't let us skip rope with them."—T. Kathleen Seldomridge.

Our Student Council Is Over-Sponsored

ANONYMOUS

In School Activities

UR student council is sick—very sick. Worse yet, most of its members do not realize what is the matter with it.

The reasons why our student council is sick are as follows:

1. The school principal, the council's sponsor, dominates the council completely. Though members are outwardly encouraged, they have little real voice. What they suggest are things they believe are in line with the principal's ideas, things that will please him. Therefore they give little or no thought to the main goal of the council—to do things for the school. Naturally, they have no initiative, no imagination, and no feeling of personal responsibility because no opportunities for such are offered.

2. Student council membership is too severely restricted. Candidates for membership in the council must have high marks and must have their petitions officially approved by their home-room teachers and the principal. The main stress is on scholarship, not on school service or citizenship.

In our school, as in all others I suppose, there are many boys and girls who have worthy ideals of service and organizing and promo-

tional abilities who cannot qualify under the restricted membership requirements and so their ideals and talents go uncapitalized. Undoubtedly, if they were elected, they might make the job of "sponsoring" more difficult because of their ideals, talents, and initiative. In a word, while the principal wants an organization that is found in all high schools (in order to be "modern"), he wants one that brings no headaches, makes no mistakes, jumps when he calls, and stays under his thumb. And he has one-one that accomplishes nothing,

3. Election to the council is considered largely only a "high honor." Our council is really a sort of honorary society. Although it gives lip service to the ideal of school service, its program of activities is too small to be noticed

4. We have no schedule or program for the term or year. Our council lives on a meeting-to-meeting diet. True, we have a few standing committees and an occasional temporary committee, but these are generally ineffective. They must clear their ideas and activities

For obvious reasons, the author, a student council member, requests anonymity. Reported from School Activities, XXXI (January 1960), 135-36.

with the principal first. If he approves, these are "reported" to the council.

5. Our meetings are of the "diseussion" type. We talk, and talk, and talk-pretty freely too-but everyone knows that little in the way of organized plans and projeets will come out of all this talk. Such an arrangement suits our sponsor. Beamingly, he speaks of the value of free and open discussion. But he doesn't seem to want this discussion to jell into definite projects and promotions.

6. Our meetings are too correct. parliamentarily speaking. We "go by the book" literally. Our busiest officer is our parliamentarian-a good one, too, incidentally. Here again, our sponsor always beams about how we are learning parliamentary procedure. But our couneil should be an active body in the service of the school, not a class in

parliamentary law.

7. Our council has no financial responsibility. Here again, sponsor decides on the ways in Which money is to be raised, handles the money, and usually spends it without proper council authori-Sation. He merely reports to us what he has done, and that's that. Our treasurer, like all the other officers except the secretary and the parliamentarian, is only a figure-

8. We have no publicity committee or corresponding activities. Of course, we do not need such a committee because we do so little. Or perhaps it might be better to say

that we do need an exceptionally talented one in order to magnify the few things we do do.

NO RESPECT

Our school does not respect its student council. Why should it? What has the council done to deserve student respect? Even those members who know what the student council should be and should do can't respect our student coun-

Some of us have attended council conferences (if they are held nearby) but our sponsor rarely goes with us; usually he sends a teacher "to look after" us. Naturally, after learning what the couneils of other schools are doing we return home the most distressed young folks you can imagine. Once back, we never have an opportunity to report to our school what we did, saw, or heard at these conferences. Our attendance at them brings nothing to the school, only extreme dissatisfaction to ourselves for having attended.

Is there any hope for our student council? There is not, as long as it is over-sponsored as at present. Nor do I believe that the appointment of another sponsor would help matters as long as our principal holds to his present mistaken ideas of the place of a student council. So, after two years of "service," next term I am not going to run for reelection to the student council. Such membership would continue to be only a waste

of my time.

The Gifted and Talented

Louis A. Fliegler and Charles E. Bish

In Review of Educational Research

N the past few years a number of trends which represent important advances in the psychosocio-educational aspects of providing for the gifted have emerged. These innovations are not all at the same level of activity, but all clearly point to new directions. A few of these trends are:

1. Greater concern with curriculum content based on the conceptual level of the gifted.

2. Expansion of the previously narrow interpretation of giftedness through efforts to measure special abilities and creativity.

3. Increased acceptability some forms of acceleration as ad-

ministrative procedures.

4. Development and expansion of college and university programs at both undergraduate and graduate for teachers trained to work with the gifted, specifically and special programs for the retraining of teachers in science and

5. Sponsorship of comprehensive experimentation by the U.S. Office of Education and such organizations as the Ford and Carnegie Foundations, as well as intensification of research activities among local schools and doctoral students.

6. Recognition and determination to realize the underdeveloped human resource potential members of the lower socioeconomic groups, Negroes, and women.

7. Direct action by state and national governments through distribution of funds for program development and scholarships.

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8. Concern with special programs at the local level which have a variety of approaches but substantially represent an interest in the intellectual as well as the social needs of the gifted.

In our society, need for people of creative ability is urgent. Even before the space age there was an undercurrent of dissatisfaction with the lack of talent resources. present trend toward better identification and efficient guidance of the gifted shows a realization that human resources are necessary for growth in a complex, dynamic society. Several students of the problems of education for the gifted have addressed themselves to parents, pointing out the need for parental ental understanding and guidance But contrary to the usual pattern of growth and development in spe-

MAY

cial education, no strong parent movement has vet crystallized to serve as an impetus for expanding educational opportunities. Perhaps the problem of the gifted is viewed specifically as one with the national concern for survival and reflects, in part, a growing need for social conservation of superior individuals.

NO ADEQUATE DEFINITION

Although studies being ducted in this area reflect an increased interest in the subject, an adequate definition of giftedness still seems lacking. The numerous interpretations and emphases on the component factors of superiority tend to confuse the problem. The committee of the National Society for the Study of Education has stated that "the talented or gifted child is one who shows consistently remarkable performance in any worthwhile line of endeavor." Others have referred to talent as "capacity for outstanding achievement." The term academically talented, which is gaining currency in educational circles, is defined by Conant as the top 15 to 20 percent of high-school students, the group who should be going to college."

In our own review we came to accept this definition: The term gifted encompasses those children who possess a superior intellectual Potential and functional ability to achieve academically in the top 15 to 20 percent of the school population lation; and/or talent of a high order in such special areas as mathema-

tics, mechanics, science, expressive arts, creative writing, music, social leadership, and a unique creative ability to deal with their environ-

Inclusion of creative ability as a necessary factor in giftedness is made in an attempt to provide lines of delineation and to stress the process formation (creative ability) which elicits superior behavioral responses. The interrelationship of elements is evident, but as a reference point a division is essential for identification and measurement.

SIGNIFICANT STUDIES

Among the many significant studies of the last six years are those which have followed up the gifted group of Terman and Oden of 35 years ago. The conglomerate characteristics of the gifted, extensively illustrated and described by these authors, need still further definition and clarification if the potentially gifted are to be discovered.

Another line of inquiry has been concerned with the total manpower situation-the waste of potential resource power that is reflected in the vocational misplacement of capable individuals. Some of this research has gone into college trends and the supply and demand in specialized fields, and possible sources and means for meeting current needs. A group of researchers regards the Negro population as the single most underdeveloped human resource in the country and advocates better schooling, new employment opportunities, realistic programs to lift economic levels, and the breaking down of residential segregation. The National Manpower Council has presented a definitive discussion of the role of women in our society and the need for a change in public policy to increase the effective use of talented women.

COLLEGE ATTENDANCE

A number of interesting studies have focused on the reasons for college attendance and failure of potentially able high-school students to attend college. As one example, high-school graduates in Minnesota were questioned in order to determine what factors influenced college entrance. It was found that 35 percent proposed to attend and that approximately the same number actually enrolled. It was learned also that ecological factors had a direct relationship to attendance and that economic status was important. Approximately 90 percent of the students whose fathers were in top-level occupations and 5 percent of the students whose fathers were factory laborers planned to attend. The follow-up revealed that youths from high socioeconomic environment carried out their plans to a greater extent than those from the low socioeconomic group. Cultural status was as significant as, if not more important than, economic status in determining whether a student planned to attend college. A substantial relationship existed between aptitude and college i..tentions. Sex differences also appeared to be important.

Other similar studies have been conducted, and it may be concluded from a review of these that the multidimensional factors which create a desire for a college education include complex psychological, environmental, and financial reasons. A community approach which integrates governmental, private, school, and parent resources could go far to develop and make useful the capabilities of the gifted.

This is not a simple problem. But students of the matter have made recommendations. One working on a southern project which had to do with the college choices and problems of Negro high-school seniors, has made a recommendation which might be adopted by communities every where. He urged that local communities sponsor talent searches which should comprise seven major components: (a) identification of promising students through ap titudes, interests, and aspirations; (b) stimulation and motivation (c) increased awareness on the part of counseling and teaching staffs on college admissions and scholarship policies; (d) individual ual and group guidance, parent guidance, and, where necessary, clinical services; (e) enrichment of curriculums; (f) involvement of teachers teachers through workshops, service training, and staff conferences ences; and (g) financial aid. MAY

Essay Contests Are Educationally Undesirable

ABLETT H. FLURY

In The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

EVERY year hundreds of business firms and other organizations who want to sell a product or promote an idea turn to the schools in order to reach the pupils. A common procedure is to organize an essay contest. A flood of announcements of essay contests flows across each principal's desk during a school year. In many cases the principal is waited on by the local representative of a company or by a delegation from the local chapter of a national organization interested in promoting such a contest.

The value of the bait to entice participation varies from a nominal prize, plaque, or scroll to a four-year college scholarship. At times the teacher of the contest winner is included to receive some emolument. A full-size publicity spotlight focuses on the winner. the school, and, of course, on the organization promoting the project.

The growing lack of enthusiasm among educators for essay contests does not arise from antagonism to commercial enterprises or from oblection to organizations promoting worthy causes. In fact, school administrators generally recognize that schools are most effective when they correlate satisfactorily with the life of the community. In many ways, schools draw much of their strength from people in in-

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dustry, the press, religion, labor, the charitable and welfare organizations, the patriotic societies, and special interest groups-all of whom share in the support and control of Similarly, benefits schools. flow back to the personnel of these groups when the schools are able to meet their responsibilities effectively.

Educators generally object to essay contests because they almost always supplant effective instructional techniques. The organizations which promote essay contests nearly always stress their educational values. However, the experiences of teachers-and research into the learning process-show that essay contests are low in educational return when compared to the many other instructional techniques commonly used in the classroom. Some of the low returns arise from the following:

The forced competition of an essay contest does not grow from

a natural situation. Essay contests tend to overemphasize one form of expression—creative spirit thus is curtailed or channeled into a narrow pattern. Because of the prize, many a youngster compromises his own conviction to write in support of an idea in which he has little interest and less belief.

Plagiarism has been detected often enough to make it a known risk in essay contests. When detected, the result has been embarrassment and humiliation for many people. When undetected, it is hard to know what may have been the effect on the young people. Even when direct plagiarism is not involved, most essay contests provide no way of knowing whether the writing is the work of the author or whether it represents substantially the work of a parent or teacher who has coached the pupil.

In addition to these and many other objections, participation in essay contests generally interrupts the carefully planned program of the school and places an unwelcome operational burden on the teachers. Then, when the contest is over, winners are often required to miss several days of school in order that they may go to the state or national capital to collect their award and to provide background for the attendant publicity and drum beating of the sponsoring organization-another instance which may be effective in confusing a youngster's sense of values.

It is not surprising that some boards of education have simply

ruled against school participation in any essay contest. Others have set a low limit on the number of essay contests in which the schools may participate. In some cases criterions have been designed to sort out acceptable from unacceptable contests. In some schools, participation by the school is limited to providing bulletin board space on which may be posted an announcement of the contest; pupils may participate, but all contact is directly with the sponsoring organization. When an effective policy has been adopted by a board it, serves both to conserve teachers time for their assigned duties and to protect pupils from the many undersirable features of the essay contests.

Until the injurious effects of essay contests on the schools are fully understood, it is likely that there will be sponsoring organizations who will continue to try to inject themselves into the schools through essay contests. The better informed organizations which really have the welfare of the pupils at heart will try to find means of assistance that are far more beneficial than the sponsoring of an essay contest.

HELPFUL SUGGESTIONS

There are many helpful ways of working with schools. Organizations would do well to consider some of those suggested below.

1. Consult with the local school authorities about some of the needs of the school and underwrite one

or two of them with financial aid, loan of equipment, or assignment of competent advisory personnel.

2. Make a grant for some kind of program aid-perhaps books for the library, films, pamphlets, brochures. These should not advertise commercial products. They should contribute to education rather than promotion. They should be appropriate for the grade level in which they are to be used.

3. Assist in the preparation of teaching materials in which there is little or no advertising. These, too, should contribute to education rather than to the promotion of a particular project. If an idea is the objective, it should be developed around fact rather than through propaganda.

4. Provide consultants and aides

for career day.

5. Establish workshops which teachers or pupils or both may attend to learn about the working of

industry, banking, or labor.

To cite a state-wide example of a cooperative activity, the State Safety Council in one state holds a series of safety conferences for Junior- and senior-high-school students on Saturdays. The program topics are developed in consultation with school authorities. Some programs are devoted to traffic safety, others consider also the safety aspects of home, recreation, shop, and other areas of activity. This council also provides during the school year monthly outlines for secondary and elementary lessons to be used as teaching guides.

Another example is found in a county where manufacturers of explosives for commercial use produced educational posters warning against careless handling of explosives. For youngsters who were interested in rockets, a cooperative technical-educational advisory committee of teachers and scientists from industry was formed to work with these youngsters.

There are many other ways in which organizations can assist the schools and still provide a reasonable amount of promotion of the ideas which they support. The essay contest is no longer one that receives a warm welcome in the schools. And it is hoped that when organizations become acquainted with the reasons for reluctance on the part of school authorities to accept them-when objections have been discussed frankly-such organizations will find ways to work with the schools in ways more profitable for the achievement of goals that are mutually acceptable.

A Prize-Winning Letter?

A New Jersey lady who donated a cake to the schoolboard members for a postmeeting snack was a bit confused by the board's thank-you letter. It thanked her for her cooperative spirit "of which your cake was concrete evidence."-From National Parent-Teacher.

Supplementing the Library Collection

Paperbacks and Hardbacks

FAYE M. KLINGMEYER

In The Clearing House

EVERY school librarian knows the frustrations engendered by mass requests for specific titles as a result of interest stimulated by teachers, movies, or other means. A library can never afford to buy sufficient copies to satisfy such demands. Paperback books are a boon in such circumstances-not for circulating, because they do not hold up well enough for that, but for sale.

Few students can afford to buy hardbooks at today's prices, but they can and do afford paperbacks. They enjoy building up their own libraries, are proud of them, and best of all, read them. The psychology of ownership seems to promote reading. In the writer's library, where paperbacks now have been sold for two years, students frequently ask if a specific title is in paperback form either because they have read the hardback and want to own the book or because they have heard the book is good and don't want to wait for a library hardback.

Hundreds of titles now are available in the classics and there are hundreds more in modern fiction and nonfiction. Of course the school librarian must exercise the same critical judgment in her choice of paperbacks for selling as she does hardbacks for circulation. What

Faye M. Klingmeyer is Head Librarian at North Miami Senior High School, Florida, Reported from The Clearing House, XXXIV (March 1960), 415-16.

the librarian is doing when she sells paperbacks is what she is hired to do: She is putting good literature into the hands of her

patrons on demand.

Selling paperbacks takes time. but time also is saved. It is not necessary to keep a strict inventory or to library-process these books they don't require time to charge and discharge to the patron; there are no overdues to worry about; and they don't need to be reshelved.

Any librarian wishing to handle paperbacks should clear with her board of education or her library board. Our own board has encour aged the enterprise, which began when the science department made up a list of science titles for our purchase and recommended that the teachers encourage students purchase them through the library. No sales tax is charged because we are tax exempt, but we are not per mitted. mitted to pass on any discount be the students for then we would be in competition with local stores. Unsold copies may be returned.

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The teachers have shown astonishing enthusiasm. They buy many titles for their own libraries and find many uses for them in their classes. Honors classes are given a list of paperbacks they are requested to buy. Although purchase isn't mandatory and although two or more students may share copies, parents are told honors students may have to purchase as much as \$10 worth of paperbacks as intellectual stimulation.

Some teachers use paperbacks for their slow, average, and accelerated classes. For instance, several eleventh-grade teachers (American literature) used Moby Dick or Gone with the Wind for accelerated classes, Ox-Bow Incident or Red Badge of Courage or House of Seven Gables for average classes, and Huckleberry Finn or Tom Sawyer in slow ones.

When teaching grammar, many teachers assign Six Minutes a Day to Perfect Spelling, Word Power Made Easy, Short Cuts to Effective English, or 30 Days to a More Powerful Vocabulary. Although not assigned, hundreds of copies of Webster's Collegiate Dictionary are sold.

Foreign language teachers encourage purchase of the dictionary available in the language they teach; each art student receives as part of his fee money a copy of Enjoying Modern Art, which serves as a text. Social studies teachers use regularly Teacher in America, Story of Mankind, The Greek Way. The U. N., and Story of Philosophy, among others. The best seller in science is Conant's On Understanding Science.

The librarian should not presume that students will buy only because of teacher assignment. They buy because of intellectual interest and for entertainment. Just as in hardbacks, the librarian learns to cater to many kinds of taste. Students buy best sellers when the paperbacks are published promptly and they buy books when influenced by the movie or simply because of the fame of a classic.

Our library sold 5,000 paper-backs during the school year 1958-1959, and in the first three weeks of this school year teachers had the school purchase 1,200 for resale. One enthusiastic teacher has stated that paperbacks are the greatest stimulation to reading she has ever observed.

Availability may be a part of the reason. In any event this stimulation is worth trying.

EADING books in one's youth is like looking at the moon through a crevice; reading books in middle age is like looking at the moon in one's courtyard; and reading books in old age is like looking at the moon on an open terrace. This is because the depth of benefits of reading varies in proportion to the depth of one's own experiences.—Chang Ch'ao.

Dramatic History and Future Trends

Junior College Growth

EDMUND J. GLEAZER, JR.

In Junior College Journal

HERE has been some tendency in this country to look on increasing enrolments in colleges and universities as a kind of national calamity, second only to the not dissimilar problem of what to do with all of our wheat and corn and butter and eggs. Our reason tells us that we do have a problem here. But thoughtful persons know that there is reason to be grateful that there are so many young people and adults who are inclined to yield themselves in growing thousands to the discipline and insights of higher

The time has come when the citizens of America must have more than an academic interest in extending opportunities for higher education. This fact has been amply demonstrated in the fields of science and technology. It is equally true in man's social relations.

But unfortunately there is a greater lag here in our comprehension of need.

A member of the President's Cabinet recently stated that the most serious problem we face in this country over the next 25 years is the need for trained manpower. He affirmed that we need urgently to develop all of our human resources and that education has this basic responsibility. In a similar President vein former Harvard James Bryant Conant is quoted in Time magazine as saying, "A modern industrial nation needs more than a few brains; it has to uplift talent at every level. It cannot afford technological unemployables spiritually, politically, or economi-

cally." There is no questioning the fact that the perpetuation of our society requires people of learning, but

sometimes we forget a corollary imperative: There is also the Amer ican dream of self-fulfillment-the liberation of the human mind be cause that in and of itself is good and ought to happen. As this ideal agitates within the context of our

generation and the one to come, the result will surely be dramatic developments in the field of education tion. And no picture of American education today is complete with

out inclusion of the junior college. or the junior con Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., is Execu-

tive Director of the American Resociation of Junior Colleges. ported from Junior College Journal, XXX (February 1960), 351-60.

Growth in the numbers of junior colleges in the United States and in students enrolled continues to be dramatic. Public or taxsupported junior colleges now number 400, while privately controlled or church-related institutions total 277. In 1915-16 there were only 74 of both types. In that year there was a total of 2,363 students enrolled, while in 1958-59 the number of students had grown to 905,062. The coeducational junior college is the prevailing type with a total of 552 institutions. There are 75 junior colleges for women and 50 for men.

Yet, despite this almost spectacular growth, there is a real likelihood that in making projections of student enrolments over the next 10 years educators have been too conservative and have not given sufficient attention to two extremely important factors: the motivating influence of proximity of an institution of higher education, and the effect of a variety of college programs to match a variety of student interests and aptitudes.

An example of the importance of proximity is the case of Chipola Junior College in Jackson County, Florida. At the time the junior college was established in 1947 only 7 percent of the high-school graduates in that county enrolled in college. In 1959, 12 years later, 52 percent of the high-school graduates began college careers. About 7 percent attended institutions outside the county. The rest enrolled at Chipola Junior College. It is 1960

quite clear that a high percentage would not have begun college work at all if it had not been for the existence of the junior college. This story is being repeated throughout the country where similar opportunities are available.

APPROPRIATE COURSES

The impact of appropriate courses being available has been demonstrated recently at Bakersfield College, California. In September 1957, 23 students were admitted to the new two-year program in nursing at the institution. Twenty-one of the students were graduated from the college with the Associate in Arts degree in June 1959. Their age range was 17-plus to 46; 15 of them were married, and most of these had children. One student had three grandchildren. These graduates took state board examinations for licensure as registered nurses in California during the summer. The entire class passed. Seventeen of these registered nurses are currently employed in the Bakersfield area. Undoubtedly many of the persons included in this class would not have entered the nursing field if the associate degree program had not been available in the local community.

Junior colleges established throughout this country in increasing numbers and placed within commuting distance of the majority of residents in many of the states will be responsible for greatly increasing the number of people who will experience some kind of post-secondary instruction. Moreover, there will be an increasing number of students who, having taken two years of post-secondary work, will have both inclination and ability to continue their education in the upper division of four-year colleges and universities.

In many states today junior colleges are well recognized and their development is orderly and according to plan. Among these states are Florida, New York, and California. Last year, in those 26 counties of Florida in which the services of public junior colleges were available, 75 percent of the students enrolling in college for the first time chose the junior college. Florida has authorized four additional areas for junior colleges.

In New York State the first locally sponsored community junior college was established in 1950. There were 257 full-time students. Nine years later there were 13,000 full-time students. During this same period a total of \$58,000,000 of construction had been completed or was under contract. Operating budgets for next year will probably be around \$12,000,000. There are now 16 junior colleges under the State University of New York and

25 privately supported institutions. The figures given here for construction and operation apply only to those institutions under the State University.

In the college year 1958-59, California public junior colleges enrolled 73.3 percent of all full-time students enrolled in public higher education below the junior year. This past year there were 92,000 full-time students in the junior colleges. By 1970, it is estimated that there will be 220,000.

Indeed, many junior colleges have reached a point where they can no longer be described as small institutions. While there is no general agreement about the optimum size of a junior college, a question can be raised about the use of terms which characterize junior colleges as small institutions by definition. One California county study has suggested the setting of a limit of 5,500 students, while plans written in other states advise a lower figure.

In a number of states the establishment of junior-college facilities is a subject of current and active consideration. These include Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Connecticut, and Ohio

RECENT survey conducted by Elmo Roper and Associates for the Ford Foundation revealed that 60 percent savings plan specifically for this purpose. For the 40 percent who did have such a plan, the median amount saved last year was only \$150.

A Critical Reading Laboratory

ELLEN LAMAR THOMAS

In The Reading Teacher

Words! Words! Words! From the television screen, from newspapers, from books, from billboards, from flaring advertising spreads, stimulus after stimulus makes its impression on the minds of our students-shaping what they think and molding what they do. The young people we teach today belong to the most highly propagandized generation in the history of the world.

Clear, penetrating thinking was never so vital as it is in these times. Is it not ironical that in an age of bewildering and complex problems the forces that inform us should also confuse our thinking? Does this not strengthen our conviction that training in critical reading is one of the most effective counterforces, one of the compelling needs of the present, and one of the hopes of the future?

To meet this urgent responsibility to our students, we have established in our high-school reading center our own critical reading laboratory. It is similar in appearance to commercially-prepared reading laboratories. In format it is an attractive box with colorful and inviting contents. Pockets of brightcolored construction paper on a white drawing-paper background house our clipping collections. The 1960

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clippings are contributed from our own reading. If we find a false analogy, a conclusion that lacks proof, a passage in which namecalling runs riot, a statement wrenched from its context, into the file it goes. Our practice materials thus are live, thought-provoking, and as timely as today.

Explanations of procedures of sound thinking (removed from books and workbooks and bound in folders or slipped into plastic envelopes) head specific sections. In compiling materials for the laboratory I have drawn heavily on Richard D. Altick's Preface to Critical Reading for introductory explanations of techniques of sound thinking and for exercises close to the interests of students.

Divisions of the laboratory are captioned with questions-questions which, it is hoped, will haunt the minds of students throughout a lifetime of reading. Here are some examples:

Is There a Hidden Motive? Here is the introduction to a section of the laboratory intended to develop

awareness of the author's purpose. And it is suggested to the student that he ask himself such questions as these: "Does this author wish to sway you for or against some nation, race, or religion?" "Does he want your support in behalf of some policy or practice which is to his advantage?" "Will your uncritical acceptance of his point of view result in his financial gain?"

Who Would Want You to Believe This? This division alerts students as they read to begin to show immune reactions to the influence

of propaganda.

Does This Writer Speak with Authority? Students accustomed to accepting as sacrosanct anything that appears in print will become more discerning when they realize that a great part of what they read comes from persons with no special right to make pronouncements on the subject at hand. With "says who?" uppermost in mind, classes go about the business of evaluating authorities. They use references, they consult specialists, and they investigate the bias of political commentators whose columns appear in their local newspapers. They try to differentiate between sensation-mongers and writers with a sense of social responsibility, and they report their appraisals.

LOGIC TECHNIQUES

Has the Writer Proved His Point? In this section of the laboratory students are introduced to the techniques of deductive and inductive logic. "What is wrong

with this thinking?" becomes the watchword as classes test their skill in detecting the weak link in a chain of reasoning. With searching questions they analyze examples of the deductive process: Are the premises valid? Is this a case in point? Does the conclusion necessarily follow? Are the terms correctly and consistently defined?

As we turn to the techniques of inductive reasoning, attention is directed to these questions: Are terms correctly and consistently defined? Is there enough evidence to justify the conclusion? Is the evidence sound? If causation is in volved, is there a possibility of more than one cause or of a differ ent cause?

Students cull examples from their own reading and ask classmates to search out the fallacy in such state ments as: "Hydrogen bomb tests took place in July. Tornadoes and hurricanes followed. Such tests are upsetting the weather." Or, are constantly seeing newspaper reports of teen-age thefts and van dalism. Young people are utterly lawless."

What Kind of Evidence Would You Require? As we examine industrial inductive process, students consider the er the type of evidence they would require to be convinced that such statement statements as the following true: "Cigarettes are a major cause of lung of lung cancer." "Because of tele vision, high-school students spend. less time than they used to in reading for plan ing for pleasure."

What Is the Influence of Adver

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tising? When the critical reading of advertising is introduced, class groups consider the important contribution of advertising and the scundness of much of that advertising. Then we reflect on the question: But how are we being molded by certain types of advertising—toward maturity or immaturity? "Your friends will envy you . . ." "Be the first in your social set to own one." "The mark of the man of distinction." "Luxurious . . ." "Exclusive . . ."

How are these persuasive words shaping our psychological growth? Are we maturing as human beings if we accept the advertisers' criterions for prestige and success with which we are assailed almost every waking hour? Class groups read or hear about in comments of the teacher, material from Harry Overstreet's The Mature Mind. An excerpt, "What We Read, See, and Hear in the Ads," bound in a manila folder, prefaces the division of the laboratory on advertising.

The students soon placard the classroom with ads tapping our less mature emotions—some alluring with bright beckonings toward a life filled with ease and free from worries; some appealing to such social fears as the fear of being different or left out, of being criticized by others, of not making a

distinctive appearance; some relating to such social desires as seeking status through the ownership of "things" or wishing to see ourselves "not as maturely equal with others, but as the focus of attention and envy."

As classes compare the bright promises in advertisements with the unbiased appraisals in such magazines as Consumer Reports, they learn that the product most attractively advertised is not always the best bargain. Clippings reporting the objective laboratory findings are pasted on the advertisements, often in revealing contrast.

But we shall profit little if we leave our students with questions substituted for convictions. The maturing student-reader should realize that "plenty of truth remains in the world—there is no dearth of things for him to believe or to believe in." Believing nothing is as little to be desired as believing everything. Across more than 300 years, Francis Bacon's counsel is still timely today: "Read not to contradict and refute; nor to believe and take for granted . . .; but to weigh and consider."

The world's destiny is being shaped by words. What more challenging responsibility is ours than training students who can weigh them?

ELL a man something is bad, and he's not at all sure he wants to give it up. Describe it as stupid, and he knows it's the better part of caution to listen.—David Seabury.

Should It Be Extended to the Upper Grades?

Manuscript Writing after 60 Years

GERTRUDE HILDRETH In Elementary English

HE invention of the typewriter has not made handwriting obsolete. To the young child, the ability to use pen or pencil successfully is still an attractive goal. Now the subject of handwriting-formerly called penmanship-has once more attracted the attention of teachers and the public in general.

There can be no mention of the subject of handwriting without reference at once to print script, known also as manuscript writing. Sixty years now have passed since Miss M. M. Bridges, an English educator, published her copybook, A New Handwriting, reviving the beautiful handwriting of the Elizabethan era derived from the fifteenth century italic style known as the "chancery" hand. The movement Miss Bridges started received scant attention at first. But by 1913 the question of introducing manuscript writing into the schools was fully discussed at the London County Council Teachers' Confer-

Toward the middle of 1914 an alphabet for print script with the simplest possible style of lettering, worked out by Miss S. A. Golds, appeared and later Dr. C. W. Kimmins, who was chief inspector of the London County Council, made the first extensive report of research findings concerning printGertrude Hildreth is Professor of Education at Brooklyn College, New York. Reported from Elemen-(January tary English, XXXVII 1960), 3-13.

script writing. By the early twenties English education authorities felt that the new movement had passed the experimental stage and that this new style of writing should become an established feature of the school curriculum. At that time the new print style was expected to supplant cursive writing altogether instead of serving merely as a prelude to the use of cursive style writing.

Manuscript style writing was brought to New York City by Mar jorie Wise in 1921, and it was multaneously introduced in private elementary schools in Boston. Dur ing the twenties, the new style writing was confined largely to the smaller private and experimental or laboratory school systems with experimental programs such as Winnetka, Illinois, and Bronxville, New York.

During the thirties the trend steadily increased with more more public-school systems show ing interest in the movement and introducing the new style to ginners. From 1940 onward the

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trend was even more rapid so that by 1950 the teaching of script in the primary grades of public schools had become practically universal in American schools. Today in many countries around the world where the Roman alphabet is used, beginners are taught manuscript style writing.

The introduction of print script in the primary grades coincided with the new views concerning the place of writing in the school curriculum and methods of teaching the skill. Formerly, handwriting was taught as a formal isolated drill subject and treated as a mechanical skill. First came practice in separate strokes, then whole letters, and finally words. The children wrote laboriously in their copy books, slavishly copying line after line. A child who was asked what he had written would reply, don't know. I haven't learned to read it yet." Not until the children had reached third grade or beyond were they able to use handwriting for written expression.

The significant difference now that print script has come into use is this: Teachers of young children regard writing as a functional tool from the beginning—not as preparation for composition work two or three years later. The children learn to write while actually writing something to be read. Beginners are saved the confusion of having to become familiar with two styles of graphic language, machine printed type-face and conventional longhand. It is possible to teach

reading and handwriting together and, in turn, link these skills to the child's natural oral expression. The children's handwriting skills, by the time they have reached the third grade, is infinitely superior to results gained with cursive style writing. It is not only more legible and fluent, but more pleasing in appearance. With this style of writing, children begin composition work earlier and become more independent in written expression.

NO ALTERNATIVE?

Today, in American schools, manuscript writing is the form used almost without exception in the initial teaching of handwriting, with the change to cursive style before the beginning of the fourth grade. Most teachers today assume that there is no alternative to changing over—difficult as that period may be. As one supervisor expressed it, "Prejudice against continuation of manuscript in the upper grades is so deeply rooted that no change in attitude can possibly come about in our generation."

And there are some who believe that if manuscript writing cannot be continued with the expectation of permanent use it is best never to start it.

Nevertheless, there are competent educators who favor continuation of manuscript writing in the upper grades. They have pointed out that it has much the same value for advancing pupils in all phases of literacy as in the lower grades and that manuscript style writing

is a practical, serviceable hand for all mature writing needs. They have, indeed, found acceptable and persuasive answers to most of the problems and objections—and to prejudice. Their views have found acceptance in practice in a number of reputable school systems. In Brookline, Massachusetts, for example, manuscript writing has been retained throughout the upper grades.

MANUSCRIPT IN UPPER GRADES

But when schools permit the children to "keep it," this is not the whole answer. Children above the third grade need planned practice and drill until they show command of fluent handwriting. If individual children appear to be writing more slowly than need be, teachers should assist them in acquiring a slight slant, attaining a more comfortable writing posture, practicing for lighter pressure, more arm movement.

At all stages—primary, intermediate, and in the higher grades—teachers should never refer to manuscript writing as "printing" in contrast to "real writing," both because this is misleading and because it prevents wider acceptance of print-style handwriting. It should go without saying that upper-grade teachers who wish to instruct children in manuscript writing should familiarize themselves with this style and learn to do it well.

They need also to recognize the fact that they must meet a certain amount of prejudice from par-

ents who have considered the manuscript style as babyish. The proper answer to the question, When are the children going to learn to write?" is, "They are learning to write, but it's new style, like your new model car or camera." In Bronxville, parents of children in the junior-high school were asked to support the school in continuing manuscript-style writing in the upper grades and to show pride in their children's accomplishment. However, they were invited to request a changeover if they wished to do so.

There is a continuing need for research in elementary-school handwriting. This is a day of urgency in teaching literacy not only in America but around the world, and the whole area of handwriting instruction needs to be thoroughly explored. There is a need of controlled studies in which comparable groups of pupils are taught different handwriting styles. American schools have never developed norms for rate and quality of manuscript writing throughout the elementary grades comparable to those reported by Kimmins or the cursive script norms established years ago by Ayres, Starch, Thorndike, and others. An educational campaign among the parents and general public would be necessary to conduct new experiments with true impartiality. The full cooperation of the handwriting experts (penmanship specialists) and the copybook publishers would also be required.

→ With Education in Washington ★



THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

The White House Conference .-Out of the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth emerged the National Committee for Children and Youth.

The new committee was created to follow up the recommendations of the White House Conference. This will be no easy task. The 7,-500 delegates to the Conference left no less than 1,630 recommendations. To arrive at these, the delegates spent six days (March 27-April 2) listening to 190 major speeches of experts and taking part in discussions generated by 210 workshops.

Ruth Stout, a delegate from Kansas, was given the task of summing up these recommendations at the final session. She said that the scope of the recommendations "was too vast for the mind to grasp." But she assured the delegates that all of them had tried to carry out the purpose of the conference-which was "to help each child fulfill the promise that is in him."

Mrs. Rollin Brown, the national chairman of the event, also tried to sum up the precedings before the delegates went home. She contented herself, however, with the statement that "this was an interdisciplinary conference and that no single point of view dominated the discussions."

The interdisciplinary approach was evident throughout the pro-

criticized Churchmen ceedings. American values and charged that our society is addicted to things which downgrade the person. Parent-group representatives attacked TV programs for children as inane and vicious. Librarians deplored the fact that youngsters don't read enough, partly because thousands of communities lack public library services. Recreation leaders complained of lack of playgrounds, state and national parks. Family-life experts insisted the home must remain the major stabilizing force in the lives of young people. Child-care workers pointed out that young mothers have little experience in child care and must often turn to "sensationally written" magazine articles for help. Urban planners said we must remake our cities into suitable places for children to live in. And social workers said we need more social workers.

Educators, too, had their say. They spoke out for creative teaching as contrasted with "assimilation of fact." They called for richer curriculums and better programs for the gifted, slow learners, and underachievers. If there was one lesson for educators at the Conference it was this: that a great host of agencies, disciplines, organizations, forces, and institutions in America are concerned about the child-his health, morals, values, and the social climate in which he is growing up. But only the school and the educator are concerned about his schooling. One result of the Conference, therefore, may be to strengthen the growing tendency of educators to de-emphasize the "social-service" function of schools and strengthen their academic and intellectual objectives.

Defense and Criticism.—Even while the White House Conference was still in session its apologists rose to defend it and its critics to decry it. When the Conference ended, and the evaluations began in earnest, both defense and criticism rose in volume. The question was, "What has the Conference achieved?"

The Washington Post editorialized that one of the Conference results was to state afresh the hopes and aspirations for children during the next 10 years. Spokesmen for the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (hosts to the Conference) said it may take 5 to 10 years before anyone knows what the meeting achieved.

But William G. Carr, NEA executive secretary, was dubious that any of the five previous "decennial spectaculars" (the first White House Conference was held in 1909 and there has been one every 10 years since) had accomplished much of importance, and he expected little from the latest one. Why? Because of its enormous scope. Said he: "The conferences have become so comprehensive that nothing is excluded that has

any relevance to the well-being of children. The 1940 conference theme dealt with children in a democracy. The 1950 conference gave up trying to find a theme and called itself the Mid-Century Conference. The conference in which we are now engaged, having found no terse, specific theme, is called merely the Golden Anniversary Conference. We may assume that the 1970 conference will deal with children in a changing solar system or changing universe."

Troubling Dr. Carr was the fact that the Conference was not concentrating on what he (and the NEA) believed to be the number one need of American children, namely, a heavy dose of federal dollars for the support of cducation. In time, however, the conference did endorse a resolution urging federal aid.

But this endorsement, not a very strong one, was nearly lost in the stream of the 1,600 other rec ommendations. By far the largest proportion of these stressed equality of opportunity for children and an end to all types of discrimination. Next in number were resolutions seeking improvement health, schooling, welfare, legal, and protection services for children.

And one resolution in the lot all but bore out a prediction Dr. Carr had ventured in his speech criticisms it cizing the meeting. The delegates approved a recommendation that the 1970 White House meeting shall be considered a preliminary

one for a global conference on children to be called by the United Nations.

More Money than Requested.—
If Rep. Fogarty is the voice of Congress (and he is when it comes to federal appropriations for educational activities), then Congress is eager to spend more money for education than the Eisenhower administration believes necessary.

Mr. Fogarty. Democrat from Rhode Island, has been having difficulty persuading Republicandominated federal educators that they should ask for more money than the White House and the Bureau of Budget allows them.

Take the case of federal aid to school districts affected by government activity. For some time now, Mr. Eisenhower has wanted to whittle down the sums going to the 4,000 school districts which have been getting U. S. dollars since 1950. For 1961, the President and his budget men decided to cut payments for maintenance and operation and the grants for school construction. Mr. Fogarty and his Committee said no. In sum, where the Eisenhower budget had asked for a total of only \$171,085,000 for federally-impacted areas, the Fogarty committee decided to give them \$250,610,000.

Mr. Fogarty exhibited the same generous tendency toward other U.S. Office of Education budget items.

When he looked at the 1961 figure for institutes for counseling per-1960 sonnel (another NDEA activity), Mr. Fogarty became impatient. Why did you ask for only \$6,500,000 when you might have asked for the fully-authorized figure of \$7,500,000? he asked U. S. Commissioner of Education Derthick. Dr. Derthick admitted that he had, in fact, asked for the larger sum, but that the Budget Bureau had reduced this.

Mr. Fogarty: "Then why do you take it so calmly? I thought you had told Congress counseling was important. What will happen if Congress decides to give you more money? Couldn't you do a better job if you had a few more dollars?"

The same line of questioning followed the presentation of nearly every budget item dealing with defense education activities. Since Dr. Derthick is a loyal member of the team, he must follow the policy set by the President. He said:

"As we go down the line in the National Defense Education Act, we feel sincerely we are getting what we need to do the job . . . We have all the money we can use."

Mr. Fogarty wasn't convinced and he made clear that next year, if he's still chairman of the all-powerful House Appropriations Committee, he'd like to get budget requests from the U. S. Office of Education which are "progressive toward the goals the nation has set for itself" and which are not tampered with by the "economyminded men in the Bureau of the Budget."

Goals for the Next Decade.-The nation should set for itself two major educational goals for the coming decade-to have a competent teacher in each classroom and to supply enough classrooms for all children.

This is the gist of a "national goals paper" circulated by the U. S. Office of Education among educators and educational organizations. The intent of the paper is to stimulate discussion on national staffing and construction objectives. The Office of Education is inviting comments and reactions to its proposals.

While the goals are for the next decade, they are "phased" into periods of five years.

The school staffing goals are to increase teacher salaries by 1964 so that they will be 50 percent higher in purchasing power than they were in 1959. To preserve this level during the remainder of the decade, the goal calls for a 3 percent annual increase, from 1964 to 1969. Says the document: "The national cost of this achievement-without regard to the respective sources of funds to be used -would be a total of \$120.5 billion for the 10-year period, the annual average being \$12.1 billion, and the largest amount in any one vear (1968-69) being \$15 billion."

In addition, the goal calls for spending one billion dollars over the 10-year period to improve teacher selection, preparation, and in-service education.

As for the second major goal-

the paper calls for construction of 416,300 classrooms during the first half of the decade, and 191,500 during the second half. The total capital outlay for these 607,800 classrooms would be \$25.5 billion dollars of 1959 purchasing power.

The document does not suggest any new sources of money to finance these objectives. That is why the NEA issued a statement charging that the goals would be without "practical effect" unless there is vigorous federal action. Nevertheless, a conference of 100 men and women representing 60 national groups said the goals might be too modest rather than too extravagant.

Leaving such practical matters for others to take up, the authors of the document were content to sum up their proposals in these words:

"The cost of adopting these steps will be very great if viewed from the existing frame of reference of many citizens, perhaps of the majority. It is bluntly submitted, however, that to call such drastic measures unrealistic on political and economic grounds is itself an act of unrealism; with our survival at stake, as amply attested by our foremost statesmen and by other leaders in every pertinent field of endeavor, the issue of what is realistic must be determined with reference to our survival first, according to the respective factors in survival-military, political, economic, educational, and others.

Educational News

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENCIES:

Burlington, Ia.: Ralph A. Austermiller, formerly director of curriculum and instruction, Waterloo, Ia., has been named superintendent and president of Burlington College.

Erie, Pa.: John M. Hickey has resigned to become executive assistant to the state superintendent of public instruction, Harrisburg,

Pa.

Compton, Calif.: Phil H. Putnam, director of Ventura, Calif., Junior College, has been appointed superintendent and president of Compton College.

Evansville, Ind.: Ralph J. Becker has resigned to become regional representative of the U.S. Office of Education in Kansas City, Mo.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

University of Chicago, Ill.: Lawrence A. Kimpton, chancellor since 1951, has announced his resignation, effective successor is when B. named.

University of California, Los Angeles: Franklin D. Murphy, chancellor of the University of Kansas, Lawrence, has been appointed chancellor, succeeding Vern O. Knudsen

on his retirement in July.

Chatham Pittsburgh. College, Pa.: Paul R. Anderson has announced his resignation to become vice-president for academic affairs, Temple University, on Aug. 1.

Amherst College, Mass.: Calvin H. Plimpton, assistant dean, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University, will succeed Charles W. Cole on his retirement in July.

Hall University, South Seton Orange, N. J.: Msgr. John J. Dougherty, Immaculate Conception Seminary, Darlington, N. J., has

been named president.

University of Minnesota, Minneapolis: O. Meredith Wilson, president of the University of Oregon, Eugene, will succeed J. L. Morrill on his retirement in July.

University of Alaska, College: William Ransom Wood, vice-president at the University of Nevada, has been appointed president.

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS: University of Mississippi, University: Forrest W. Murphy has announced his retirement in July as dean of the school of education. He will continue as professor of education.

Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey, New Brunswick: Wallace B. Appelson, formerly assistant professor of education, is now state coordinator of terminal programs in the New Jersey State Department of Education, Trenton.

Sam Huston State Teachers College, Huntsville, Tex.: Bradley B. Hogue, Jr., formerly at North Texas State College, Denton, is now assistant professor of education.

Glassboro State College, N. J .: Willie Kate Baldwin, formerly of South Carolina, has been named professor of education.

OTHER CHANGES AND

APPOINTMENTS:

Martin C. Tate, Phoenix, Ariz., has been named president-elect of the NEA Department of Elementary School Principals.

New members of the Educational Policies Commission recently announced by the NEA and the AASA are: Max Lerner, professor of civilization, Brandeis American Waltham, Mass.; O. University,

Meredith Wilson, president, University of Oregon, Eugene, who will become president of the University of Minnesota in July; and Milson C. Raver, executive secretary, Maryland State Teachers Association, Baltimore. Retiring from the Commission this year are: James B. Conant, president emeritus, Harvard University; Arthur F. Corey, executive secretary, California Teachers Association; and Ruth E. Eckert, University of Minnesota.

Stephen A. Romine, dean of the college of education, University of Colorado, Boulder, has been elected president of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

RECENT DEATHS:

John L. Bracken, president of the AASA, 1949-50, and superintendent at Clayton, Mo., 1923-1956, at the age of 68.

N. L. Engelhardt, Sr., senior partner in Engelhardt, Engelhardt, Leggett, and Cornell, educational consultants in New York City, at the age of 77. Dr. Engelhardt, a member of the faculty at Teachers College, Columbia University, from 1916 to 1942, was formerly associate superintendent of schools in New York City and was a former president of the AASA.

John Wesley Carr, president emeritus of State Teachers College, now Murray State College, Murray, Ky., at the age of 100. Dr. Carr was also a former president of the Department of Superintendence, NEA, the organization preceding the American Association of School Administrators.

Clarence M. Dannelly, former president of Kentucky Wesleyan College, Owensboro, and retired superintendent at Montgomery, Ala., at the age of 70.

Fire Safety

Today 4.5 million more children are attending schools that are sig-

nificantly safer from fire than they were a year ago, according to a recent progress report made by the National Fire Protection Association.

This means, the Association states, that more than 17 million public-school children are now being taught under reasonably fire-safe conditions. However, it adds, approximately 18 million are still exposed to fire hazards.

The survey indicated that 68 percent of all U. S. communities made some attempt to improve fire-safety conditions in school buildings during the past year by making some physical changes in the school structures. Almost all communities now have more frequent and better exit drills, better housekeeping habits, and more frequent and intensive school-building inspections.

New Ford Grants

New teacher-education programs at eight colleges will be initiated by grants totaling \$2,761,250 announced in April by the Ford Foundation.

The new group of grants is the third in a series begun a year ago to help advance what the Foundation terms a national "break through" in the education of elementary- and secondary-school teachers. The program now includes 27 colleges and universities that have received a total of \$18.2 million

Activities supported by the new grants range from the training of

MAY

positions to teaching internships and new cooperative arrangements between colleges and public-school systems.

The colleges receiving the new grants are: Converse College, Northwestern University, University of Kansas City, Kansas State University, Middlebury College, University of Notre Dame, Oberlin College, and University of Pittsburgh.

Integration Report

Six percent of the three million Negroes enrolled in the South's public schools are attending classes with whites this school year, according to the Southern School News.

The News reports that 524,425 of the Negro students are in integrated school districts. An estimated 182,104 actually attend classes with whites.

The 17 southern and border states, plus the District of Columbia, have 3,039,133 Negroes and 9,901,310 whites enrolled. The District of Columbia and West Virginia have complete integration in their school systems. Six other states have substantial integration, five have partial integration, and the remaining five maintain complete segregation.

School Construction Down

Contracts for educational buildings last year dropped 8 percent from 1958, according to a year-end review of construction contracts re-

cently published in Building Business.

School building, which totaled \$2.6 billion in 1959, was still the fourth largest construction category despite the drop, the bulletin states. It was exceeded only by single-family homes, commercial buildings and highways.

Church-State Decision

Use of public funds is pay tuition for students attending Catholic high schools has been ruled unconstitutional by a superior court judge in Burlington, Vt.

Because the suburb has no high school, the local board has been paying tuition for students who must go to high school elsewhere, including those who attend two Catholic schools.

Judge William G. Hill, who made the ruling, declared that payments to the Catholic schools violated the first and fourteenth amendments to the Constitution.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

June 26-July 1, National Education Association, Los Angeles,
Calif.

July 31-Aug. 7, World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession (WCOTP), Amsterdam, Holland.

Aug. 21-27, National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, Macomb, Ill.

Oct. 7-12, Department of Rural Education, NEA, Louisville, Ky.

Oct. 14-16, National Association of Public School Adult Educators, Denver, Colo.

Nov. 23-26, National Council for the Social Studies, Boston, Mass. How to Teach Foreign Languages Effectively. Theodore Huebener. New York: New York University Press, 1959. Pp. x + 198, \$3.00.

This book, which is designed to provide the classroom teacher of modern languages with practical aids in his teaching, is devoted primarily to the description of various methods of instruction and to the presentation of a collection of illustrations, examples, model lessons, suggested procedures, games,

More than 40 complete lessons in German, Italian, Spanish lessons which have been proved successful in classroom use -are included to illustrate the various phases of language instruc-

The author points out that there is no one best method for all lessons and all teaching situations. He, therefore, gives various types

The author is director of foreign languages in the New York

Adolescence and Discipline; A Mental Hygiene Primer, Rudolph M. Wittenberg. New York: Association Press, 1959.

This guide, written in everyday language, presents modern psychological and educational concepts of discipline as a fundamental ingredient of the maturation process. Basically, as the author points out in his introduction, it tries to answer these questions: What really is the challenge of adolescence? What are we doing to help develop discipline? Can we find ways to use our understanding to do a more skillful job?

The final section of the book, dq voted to answering the third ques tion, is the most detailed. Here the author discusses such topics as: how to support the ego; when to stop trying; how to use outside help; discipline in the classroom; how to set limits; and discipline in a democracy.

This book is designed to be helpful to both parents and teachers. The author, Dr. Wittenberg, is a practicing psychotherapist and is on the faculty of the New School

for Social Research.

The Third Curriculum; Student Activities in American Education. Robert W. Frederick. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959. Pp. x + 454. \$5.75.

The author believes that student activities, by whatever name they are called, are an essential part of deliberate education in America, and that they form a curriculumthe third-paralleling the required (or general) and the elective (or

special) curriculums.

This book stresses the fact that the third curriculum should receive the same attention in terms of its philosophy, aims, social setting, construction, and evaluation as that given the required and elective curriculums. After discussing these aspects of the subject, the author considers specific types of student activities and gives specific details about them in view of his earlier discussion.

The Child's World: His Social Perception. Frank New Elizabeth W. Estvan. York: G. P. Putnam's 1959. Pp. xiii + 302. \$4.95. This book is about the way chil-MAY

dren view their social world: what 'tey "see" when looking at a farm r factory, rich people or poor, a

church or capitol building.

The authors describe what children had to say about certain life situations representing contrasts in and urban environment, upper and lower socioeconomic background, and in child and adult activities. Comparisons are made between farm and city children, boys and girls, first- and sixthgrade pupils, as well as bright and below-average children. Out of these emerge certain generalizations about the nature and growth of children's social perception. Implications for education and for guidance conclude the presentation.

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED: ELEMENTARY

Teaching in the Kindergarten. (Second Edition.) Helen Bartelt Hurd. Minneapolis, Minn.: Burgess Publishing Company, 1959. Pp. iii + 160. \$3.25.

Psychology at Work in the Elementary School Classroom. Beeman N. Philips, Ralph L. Duke, and M. Vere DeVault. New York: Har-Per & Brothers, 1960. Pp. xii + 395. \$5.00.

Science, Grades K-6; No. 3, Living Things, Curriculum Bulletin 2c, New York City Board of Education. Pp. 101. \$.50.

Children's Views of Themselves. Ira J. Gordon. Washington, D. C.: Association of Childhood Education International, 1959. Pp. 36. \$.75.

Early Childhood Education and Oral and Written Communication, Grades 1-6. Curriculum Bulletins No. 5 and No. 9, New York City Board of Education. Pp. 139 and 111. \$.75 and \$.50, respectively.

Primary School Textbooks; Pre-paration—Selection—Use. A Comparative Study. Unesco Publication No. 204. Geneva: International Bureau of Education, 1959. Pp. 245. \$2,75.

SECONDARY

Mathematics. First Course and Second Course. John A. Brown, et al. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960. Pp. 323 and 365. \$3.40 and \$3.64, respectively. Texts for seventh- and eighthgrade courses.

GENERAL

The United States to 1865. Michael Kraus. The United States since 1865. Foster Rhea Dulles. Ann Arbor, Mich.: The University of Michigan Press, 1959. Pp. xiii + 529 and ix + 546. \$7.50 each, clothbound; \$4.75 each, paperbound, for classroom use only.

AUDIO-VISUALS

Listen and Learn Japanese. Three 12" LP records and manual. New York: Dover Publications, Inc., 1960. \$5.95. Aimed at the student and traveler with limited study time.

Space Songs. Sixteen songs on a LP record that cover a wide variety of basic science subjects for elementary grade pupils. New York: Science Materials Center. \$5.95, including a 30-page song book.

Techniques of Holding Meetings Using Audio-Visual Materials. A free booklet showing how to remedy errors commonly made in audiovisual presentations, available from Ednalite Optical Company, Inc., Audio-Visual Dept., 200 N. Water St., Peekskill, N. Y.

It's Wonderful Being a Girl. A 16mm color movie to explain the growing-up process for girls from 11 to 14. Successor to the film, "Molly Grows Up." Available on free-loan basis from Director of Education, Personal Products Corporation, Box 10, Milltown, N. J. Teaching guide also available.

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